PE 1111
.S525
Copy 1

ETYMOLOGY AND SYNTAX

SMITH.

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS.

PE111

Chap. ..... Copyright No. .....

Shelf S525

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

ETYMOLOGY AND SYNTAX.

AN

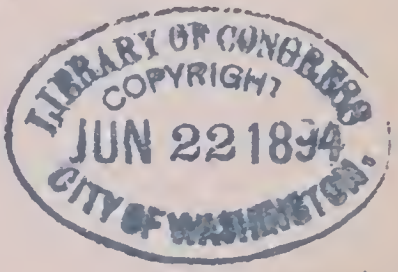
ENGLISH GRAMMAR

FOR USE IN NORMAL SCHOOLS, HIGH SCHOOLS, AND ACADEMIES.

BY

EDWARD B. SMITH, A. M.,

TEACHER OF ENGLISH IN THE CENTRAL NORMAL COLLEGE AT GREAT BEND, KANSAS, AND AUTHOR OF "METHODS IN ENGLISH GRAMMAR," "EXERCISES IN ENGLISH GRAMMAR," ETC.



CHICAGO:
A. FLANAGAN, PUBLISHER.

33091-Z
OK

PE 1111
.S525

Copyrighted, 1894,
BY
A. FLANAGAN.

PREFACE.

The author believes

1. That grammar should be as thoroughly taught as arithmetic, and

2. That if accuracy and thoroughness are insisted on, no study is better adapted to develop the reasoning powers than grammar.

Those who assent to the foregoing propositions will probably find this little book of some benefit in their work, even if they do not accept all its conclusions.

While it is assumed throughout the work that "Truth is its own authority," and that the only test of the accuracy of definitions and principles is found in an appeal to the English language *as it is*, the attention of the critical is called to the fact that every position taken is in substantial harmony with such authorities as the Century Dictionary, Webster's, and the Imperial, and the grammars of Whitney, Bain, Morris, and Mulligan.

To Holbrook's Complete Grammar the author is more largely indebted than he can express, or perhaps comprehend. For twenty years Dr. Holbrook's book has been a standing refutation of the notion that a grammar cannot be at once profound and practical; and it has probably done more, directly or indirectly, to stimulate thought than all other grammars in use. If this book shall have a similar tendency, the author's purpose will be fully accomplished.

GREAT BEND, KANSAS,
March, 1894.

CONTENTS.

PAGES.

Preliminary Definitions 11

ETYMOLOGY.

Nouns 15
Pronouns 32
Adjectives 47
Verbs 53
Adverbs 90
Prepositions 99
Conjunctions 105
Interjections 113

SYNTAX.

Constructions in General 117
Constructions of Nouns and Pronouns 128
Exercises in Parsing Nouns and Pronouns 142
Constructions of Adjectives 149
Exercises in Parsing Adjectives 153
Constructions of Adverbs 159
Exercises in Parsing Adverbs 163
Constructions of Finite Verbs 168
Exercises in Parsing Finite Verbs 171

Constructions of Infinitives and Participles..... 173
Exercises in Parsing Infinitives and Participles. 185
Constructions of Prepositions..... 191
Exercises in Parsing Prepositions..... 192
Constructions of Conjunctions..... 193
Exercises in Parsing Conjunctions..... 193
Exercises in Parsing Interjections..... 194

SENTENTIAL ANALYSIS.

Definitions and Exercises..... 195
Model Diagrams and Analyses..... 204
Additional Sentences for Parsing and Analysis..... 217

A FEW PRACTICAL HINTS.

I. Pupils sufficiently advanced to use this book should prepare all lessons in parsing, analysis, and diagraming, in writing.

A great many reasons can be given for this, among which are the following:

1. Neatness and accuracy are promoted.

"Writing makes an *exact* man."

2. Drill is thus afforded in penmanship, punctuation, capitalization, spelling and the construction of sentences.

"We learn to do by doing."

3. The power of attention is cultivated.

When we are required to submit a written opinion, we are usually careful to know that it is correct.

4. The memory is aided.

We remember longer and recall more readily what we have written.

5. It secures the preparation of the lesson before the class is called.

The recitation hour should be devoted to the recitation, not to study.

6. The pupil's work is in better shape for examination and criticism.

II. Use the black-board freely.

1. Declensions, conjugations, etc., should be written on the board *from memory*, under the teacher's direction. At a

given signal let each pupil step to the right and inspect his neighbor's work, checking all mistakes detected. (Insist on thoroughness and dispatch.)

2. In parsing, send to the board as many pupils as can be accommodated, *and then* direct each one to transcribe from his parsing-book the parsing of a single word. (See page 148 for suggestions as to form.) This work is largely mechanical, and should not be allowed to occupy more than two or three minutes. In the general criticisms that follow, see that the entire class give attention to each word in its turn.

3. Each sentence assigned for analysis should also be diagramed. Have diagrams placed on the board and criticised as directed under parsing. Let oral analysis by individuals and in concert follow.

4. Do not neglect the written analysis of sentences. Many pupils who are able to diagram long and difficult sentences, fail ignominiously when required to give the oral analysis of an easy one; and few, comparatively, are able to write correctly the analysis of an ordinary sentence. Until satisfactory proficiency is attained, the written analysis of at least one sentence a day should be placed on the board.

III. While the pupils should always be prepared for black-board work, it need not always be required. After the class has advanced somewhat, and especially when many words are to be parsed, a pupil may be permitted to read from his parsing-book, while the other members of the class note the points of difference between his work and theirs. Frequently the parsing-books should be exchanged, that each pupil may have the work of another to criticise.

IV. Encourage criticism and discussion, but do not permit either to consume too much time. If it becomes evident that a definite, unanimous conclusion will not be reached within a reasonable time, postpone all discussion to another day, indicating authorities to be consulted, and insisting upon each pupil's forming an opinion as to the point under consideration.

V. Encourage free expression of honest conviction, but do not tolerate mere controversial *talk*. Do not allow the more forward to consume all the time allotted for discussion. Encourage the timid by requiring their opinions and treating them with respect.

VI. Become a student yourself, that you may the better prepare for every recitation. Endeavor to be right, but if it should happen that you are in the wrong sometimes (as who of us is not frequently?), do not permit false pride to prevent an honest confession. Your pupils will esteem you more highly, and your example will be a valuable lesson to them.

VII. Finally, encourage your pupils to ask all questions and face all grammatical problems in that spirit of candor which, while it will yield to nothing but reason, is ever open to conviction.

CHAPTER I.

PRELIMINARY DEFINITIONS.

1. A Language is a system of signs called words, employed as an instrument of thought.

REMARK.—In its metaphorical use the word language is often applied to "every mode of communication by which facts can be made known, sentiments or passions expressed, or emotions excited."

According to Abp. Thompson, "Language, in its most general acceptance, might be described as a mode of expressing our thoughts by means of motions of the organs of the body; it would thus include spoken words, cries, and involuntary gestures that indicate the feelings, even painting and sculpture, together with those contrivances which replace speech in situations where it cannot be employed—the telegraph, the trumpet-call, the emblem, the hieroglyphic."

But, certainly, the word should not be used in this broad sense by grammarians; and any attempt by them so to employ it leads to absurdities.

Neither does it appear that the restriction of language to the mere communication of thought is proper. Though we may speak and write our language, we also employ it in the thoughts which we do not utter. It is not only one of the means whereby we can *communicate* thought—it is also one of the means whereby we can think.

2. A Word is such a sign of an idea as may be expressed both by spoken sounds and written characters.

REMARK.—It is not only hypercritical but erroneous to designate as words *spoken words* only, and to say that a written word is but the sign of the spoken word—"a sign of a sign." Chronologically this may be the case in the experience of the individual, as it has been in the experience of the race; but we have only to reflect that deaf mutes, who can have no proper conception of spoken words, are able to learn and use written words, to understand that the latter are as truly "signs of ideas" as are the former. A letter is as much (but no more) the sign of a sound as the sound is the sign of the letter.

3. The Science of Language, or Comparative Philology, deals with the origin, nature, and laws of language. It has several departments with more or less definite limits.

4. Grammar is the division of the science of language which treats of the classification and modifications of words, and of their arrangement and relations in phrases and sentences.

REMARK.—Grammar is sometimes incorrectly called an art. "A science teaches us to know, an art to do." The grammatical use of language is largely a matter of habit, and does not even imply that one has studied grammar. Indeed, one may have a thorough knowledge of grammar, and habitually violate its principles. It is true, however, that as one acquires a knowledge of the principles of grammar, he may also acquire the power to apply these principles in speaking and writing. In other words, grammar is not a *useless* science; and while by the study of the subject the mind is invigorated and disciplined, the knowledge thus obtained affords in part the true basis of the art of using language correctly.

5. Etymology, as a division of grammar, treats of the classification and modifications of words.

REMARK.—Etymology in its broader application includes the history of words—their origin, and the changes they have undergone in meaning and form.

6. Words are classified with respect to *meaning* and *structure*.

As to *meaning* words are classified as follows :

1. Nouns.
2. Pronouns.
3. Adjectives.
4. Verbs.
5. Adverbs.
6. Prepositions.
7. Conjunctions.
8. Interjections.

(For definitions of these classes of words, consult the different chapters devoted to the discussion of them.)

As to *structure*, words are Simple, Complex, or Compound.

1. **A simple word** is a single word ; as, *boy*, *John*.
2. **A complex word** is one which consists of two or more words not connected ; as, *George Washington*, *Great Bend*.
3. **A compound word** is one which consists of two or more words which retain their separate forms and meanings ; as, *ink-stand*, *Brown-Sequard*, *blackberry*, *pickpocket*, *housetop*.

7. The Modifications of a word are changes in its form to denote its different significations or relations.

8. Syntax treats of the arrangement and relations of words when used in phrases or sentences.

9. The Construction of a word is its syntactical use.

10. Concord, in grammar, denotes the harmony of the forms of words with their significations and constructions.

Rem.—To each meaning or construction of a word that undergoes modification usage has assigned an appropriate form. By this it is not meant that any word has a separate form for every one of its meanings or constructions. The same form may be required by several different uses of the word, but a word seldom has more than one form appropriate to the same use.

1. If a word when used has the proper form, it is said to be used **grammatically.**
2. **A solecism** is the use of a form not called for by the meaning and construction of the word.

(NOTE.—In a more general sense, any construction not English is a **solecism.**)

3. When words are combined to form a sentence, or an element of a sentence, it may happen that the meaning or form of one will require that another shall be used in a particular form. The former is then said to **govern** the latter.
4. When a word which governs another has a form or meaning called by the same name as the form which the governed word must take, the latter word, if correctly used, is said to **agree** with the former.

11. A word is said to **modify** another when used to limit, extend, explain, or emphasize, its signification.

Rem.—When a word modifies another the latter is called the **base,** or principal term ; and sometimes the modifier is called a **dependent** element.

Criticism.

Point out the errors in the following definitions :

1. Language is the medium for the communication of thought.
2. Language is any method of communicating thought or feeling.
3. A word is the sign of an idea.
4. A word is a significant sound or combination of sounds.
5. A word is a letter, or a combination of letters, used as the sign of an idea.
6. Grammar is the science which treats of the principles and usages of language.
7. English grammar teaches how to speak, to write, and to read the English language correctly.

CHAPTER II.

NOUNS.

I. Definition.

NOUN: Latin, *nomen*—name.

12. A Noun is a word used as the name of something.

II. Classification.

13. Nouns are classified as *Proper* and *Common.*

Proper Nouns.

14. A Proper Noun is one which is particular and meaningless.

Rem.—A Proper Noun is applied to an object to distinguish it from the rest of its class.

15. Proper nouns may designate—

1. **Persons;** as, *Mary, Napoleon Bonaparte, Bulwer-Lytton.*
2. **Places;** as, *Chicago, New York, Nan-King.*
3. **Buildings, works of nature, etc.;** as *St. Peter's, Mammoth Cave, Niagara Falls.*
4. **Firms, corporations, etc.;** as, *John Smith & Co., The American Book Company.*
5. **Days, months, festivals, etc.;** as, *Monday, January, Christmas, Arbor Day.*

6. **Other things;** as, the point *B*, the line *A B*, *The Christian Advocate.*

Rem.—Of course, it is not denied that many proper nouns have a traditional meaning, or that there may now and then be found a proper noun which could have been applied in its primary sense to the person or thing which it designates. This is the case when Mr. Smith is a *smith*, when Mr. Weaver is a *weaver*, and when Mr. Porter is a *doorkeeper*, or engages in carrying luggage for hire. Occasionally, too, when some object is to receive a proper name, one is selected with reference to some real or fancied agreement of its primary meaning with the character of the thing to be designated.

"Many, probably almost all, proper nouns were originally significant, conveying some particular meaning. This was first of all pre-eminently connected with a single individual, and then came by-and-by to be applied to this individual alone. In the long run, this signification was dropt, and the name was regarded as the distinctive designation of the particular object."—BAIN.

Thus, originally, *John* meant "The gracious gift of God"; *Moses*, "Drawn out of the water"; *Lydia*, "A native of Lydia, in Asia Minor"; *Martha*, "The ruler of the house";—but no one will pretend that as now applied to persons these names always have their former meanings. They are mere *marks* or *signs* to designate certain objects. On the other hand the words *boy*, *girl*, *slate*, *hat*, *etc.*, have meaning. They do not tell us *which*, but *what kind* of object is meant.

Common Nouns.

16. A Common Noun is one which is significant.

17. Common Nouns are either *General* or *Particular*.

18. A General (or *Class*) **Noun** is one which may be applied to any individual of a class of objects; as, *boy*, *desk*, *apple*.

19. A Particular (or *Sui Generis*) **Noun** is one which is applied to an object existing as a sort by itself, without plurality; as, *gold*, *electricity*, *honesty*.

20. The following sub-classes of nouns are also to be noticed:

1. **Concrete common nouns,** or those which are the names of sensible objects; as, *tree*, *horse*, *hill*.
2. **Abstract common nouns,** or those common nouns which do not name sensible objects; as, *goodness*, *truth*, *motion*.

Rem. 1.—Proper nouns also have these sub-classes; but as the abstract proper nouns are seldom met, it is not usual to classify proper nouns as *Concrete* and *Abstract*.

Rem. 2.—By some authors only those nouns which are the names of attributes are called abstract.

3. **Collective nouns,** or those which may apparently assume plural meanings while they retain their singular forms; as *jury*, *herd*, *congregation*.
4. **Participial nouns,** or those which have the form of participles; as, "The *murmuring* of the brook"; "The *singing* of the bird."
5. **Quantitive nouns,** or those which are the names of the denominations of weights and measures; as, *pound*, *inch*, *quart*.
6. **Diminutives,** or those concrete nouns which are derived from other nouns and denote small or young objects of the kind denoted by the primitives; as, *lambkin*, *gosling*, *leaflet*.
7. **Mass nouns,** or those concrete nouns which are the names of masses; as, *ice*, *air*, *water*, *wheat*, *iron*.

Rem.—The list of sub-classes of nouns may be extended indefinitely, but the foregoing will probably be found sufficient for all needful drill in classifying nouns.

21. An article or a pronominal adjective before a proper noun may

show that the latter is not used for its ordinary purpose, but to suggest some trait, quality, or characteristic of the object it designates. The proper noun is thus made significant, and becomes a common noun; as, He is a *Cicero*—i.e. a *great orator;* It was a *Waterloo*—i.e. an *overwhelming defeat;* "This *Phlegethon* of fury swept my shuddering spirit o'er."

22. A common noun, with a definite article before it, may lose its ordinary meaning and serve merely to mark or designate some particular thing, and thus become a proper noun; as, *The Park, The Nation, etc.*

23. By the figure of personification common nouns may become proper; as,

> "From thee, sweet *Hope* her airy colorings draws;
> And *Fancy's* flights are subject to thy laws."—ROGERS.

Direction.—Classify the following nouns:—*John, America, North Carolina, Chimborazo, life, lead, measles, gallon, rod, yard-stick, sweetness, clay, corn, schooling, morning, gloaming.*

Criticism.

Point out the errors in the following definitions and statements.

1. A proper noun is the name of a particular person, place or thing.
2. A proper noun is a name peculiar to an individual, or class of individuals.
3. A proper noun is a special name given to a particular one of a class.
4. A common noun is the name of a whole class of objects, or things, or any one of a class.
5. A common noun is a general or class name.
6. A common noun is a name which may be applied to any one of a kind or class of objects.
7. A common noun is a name which belongs to many objects in common.

8. In the sentence, '*To lie* is disgraceful,' *to lie* is a noun because it is used as the subject of the verb *is*.

9. In the sentence, '*To work* is to pray,' *to work* is a noun because it merely names an action.

10. Common nouns may be divided into four classes:—Class Nouns, Abstract Nouns, Collective Nouns, and Participial Nouns.

III. Modification.

24. The modifications of nouns are *Number*, *Gender*, and *Case*.

Rem.—Nouns do not have the modification of person. They may, of course, denote the *speaker*, the person *spoken to*, or the person or thing *spoken of*, but they do not have separate forms to mark these different relations.

Number.

25. Number is the modification of words to distinguish *unity* from *plurality*.

26. The Number of a word is the *form* which the word takes to show the distinction of *unity* or *plurality*.

27. English nouns have two numbers, the *Singular* and the *Plural*.

Rem.—In some languages, nouns and other parts of speech have a dual number, to denote two objects. This form existed in the old English, but belonged only to the personal pronoun of the first and second person, and all trace of its use is lost before the year 1300.

28. The Singular Number is the *form* which denotes *unity*.

29. The Plural Number is the *form* which denotes *plurality*.

30. English nouns form the plural number according to one or the other of two general modes:

1. By inflections, or changes in their endings.
2. By radical variations, or changes within the word.

31. Rules for forming the plurals of nouns:

Rule I. Nouns regularly form their plurals by adding **s** to their singulars.

Rule II. Common nouns ending in **ch** soft, **s, sh, x, z,** or **o** preceded by a consonant, form their plurals by adding **es** to the singular.

The following nouns ending in o preceded by a consonant form their plurals regularly, contrary to Rule II: *albino, armadillo, bravo, canto, domino, duodecimo, fresco, gaucho, junto, halo, lasso, limbo, memento, octavo, piano, portico* (s or es), *proviso, quarto, salvo, sirocco, solo, stiletto, two, tyro, zero.*

Rule III. Common nouns ending in **y** preceded by a consonant form their plurals by changing **y** to **i** and adding **es.**

Rule IV. Nouns of pure English origin, ending in **f** or **fe** preceded by any long vowel sound except **oo,** or by **l,** change **f** to **v,** and add **es.**

List of words governed by Rule IV: *beef, calf, elf, half, knife, leaf, life, loaf, self, sheaf, shelf, staff, thief, wharf, wife, wolf. Wharf* has also the regular form *wharfs;* and *staff*—the only word ending in **ff** which has the ending **ves**—has *staffs.*

Rule V. A few nouns form their plurals by adding **en,** either with or without other changes.

Of these *ox* is the only noun in which the ending is the old English plural.

Rule VI. Foreign nouns not fully anglicized retain their foreign plurals (but not their duals).

Rem.—In foreign words, when possible, use English plurals in ordinary discourse. Always use the foreign plurals if they are formed by changing **is** to **es** or **ides.**

In the case of each of the following words, determine whether an English plural has been acquired. Ascertain the foreign plural.

Alumna	Calculus	Amanuensis	Automaton
Arena	Exodus	Analysis	Dogma
Aqua	Focus	Apsis	Larynx
Nebula	Genius	Epidermis	Bandit
Scora	Hippopotamus	Calix	Cherub
Tinctura	Literatus	Quincunx	Plateau

Rule VII. Letters, figures, signs, and words used technically as names, are made plural by adding an apostrophe and **s.**

Examples.—Dot your **i's** and cross your **t's.** There are four **it's** in this sentence. Add the **9's.** **A's,** ☞**'s,** *'s, †'s, ⁓'s, ⸮**'s,** are very useful symbols.

Rule VIII. The following nouns form their plurals by means of radical variations.

a changed to e		
m*a*n	|	m*e*n
oo changed to ee		
g*oo*se	|	g*ee*se
t*oo*th	|	t*ee*th
ous changed to ice		
l*ous*e	|	l*ice*
m*ous*e	|	m*ice*

Rule IX. In forming the plurals of complex or compound nouns, the practice is to make plural the part which is regarded as the base of the expression, according to the rules applicable to the particular class to which the base belongs; as, *six per cents, fathers-in-law, spoon-fulls,* etc.

Rem. 1.—Some nouns have two plural forms which differ in meaning; as, *brother, cloth, die, genius, index, pea, penny.*

Direction.—Write both plural forms of each of the foregoing. Note the difference in meaning.

Rem. 2.—The following nouns, and all collective nouns, not only have plural forms, but may also be plural in thought when singular in form: *cannon, fish, foot, head, horse, sail, shot.*

Direction.—Use each of the foregoing words in the plural number. Use each in

the singular form, but with a plural meaning. Note the difference in the two plural meanings.

Proceed similarly with the collective nouns, *flock*, *multitude*, *army*.

Rem. 3.—The plurals of some nouns appear to differ in meaning from the singulars.

Some have two meanings in the singular, with the least common of which the plural agrees; as, *compass*, *content*, *corn*, *iron*, *salt*, *etc.*

Rem. 4.—Some nouns are never used in the singular; as, *mumps*, *ashes*, *scissors*, *etc.*

Rem. 5.—Some nouns, though plural in form, are treated as singular; as, *molasses*, *news*, *mathematics*, *etc.*

Rem. 6.—Some nouns have no nominative plural; as, *deer*, *sheep*, *swine*.

(These nouns have the regular possessive plural, however.)

Rem. 7.—A few compound nouns consisting of two parts, have both parts made plural. Examples:—*men-servants*, *ignes-fatui*.

Rem. 8.—The plurals of proper nouns are usually formed in accordance with the rules for common nouns.

Rem. 9.—When a proper noun is preceded by a title, the plural may be formed, by inflecting either the name or the title; as, *The Miss Clarks*, or *the Misses Clark*. By some authors it is contended that both title and name should be made plural; as, *The Misses Clarks*, *The Doctors Johnsons*. It is agreed on all sides that the title should be plural when it applies to two names; thus, *The Misses Clark and Brown*, *Drs. Johnson and Jones*. Mrs. is never made plural, but *Mrss.* has been suggested as an appropriate form.

32. Pronunciation.—1. In pronouncing the plurals of nouns whose singulars end with the sound of **p, t, k, f,** or **th** (aspirate), add to the singulars the sound of **s,** but do not make an additional syllable.

2. If the singulars end with the sound of any vowel, or of **m, r, ng, l, r, b, d, g** (as in *go*), **v, th** (as in *the*), add to the singulars the sound of **z,** but do not make an additional syllable.

3. If the singulars end with the sound of **s, z, sh,** or **zh,** add the sound **ez** to the singulars.

(The foregoing rules are applicable in the case of all English plurals, but, of course, do not apply in the case of many nouns which retain their foreign plurals.)

Direction.—Write and pronounce the plurals of the following words:

Larva	Scholium	Isthmus	Brown
Stigma	Medium	Alkali	Esquire
Alumnus	Iris	Rabbi	Stave
Fungus	Larynx	Vice	Man-stealer
Polypus	Metropolis	Bush	9
Radius	Seraph	Money	6
Calculus	Genus	Box	Cupful
Criterion	Cicero	Goose (a tailor's)	Father-in-law
Datum	Ptolomy	The	German
Encomium	Henry	Is	Bushman

Gender.

33. Gender, in English, is the modification of nouns and pronouns to indicate the distinction of sex in the objects to which these nouns and pronouns refer.

34. The gender of a noun is the *form* which the noun takes according as it denotes a male or a female.

35. English nouns have but two genders, *The Masculine* and *The Feminine*, and the difference is always shown by inflections.

Rem.—The number of English nouns which have gender is very small.

36. The Masculine Gender is the form which indicates that the object denoted by the noun is of the male sex.

37. The Feminine Gender is the form which indicates that the object is of the female sex.

38. There are three ways of distinguishing the sex of objects denoted by English nouns.

1. By employing corresponding words applicable to only one sex or the other.

Rem.—This method is a substitute for gender, and is not a modification at all, but is based on the meaning of the words.

MALE.	FEMALE.	MALE.	FEMALE.	MALE.	FEMALE.
Bachelor	Maid	Father	Mother	Milter	Spawner
Boy	Girl	Friar	Sister	Monk	Nun
Brother	Sister	Gander	Goose	Papa	Mamma
Buck	Doe	Gentleman	Lady	Son	Daughter
Cock	Hen	Hart	Roe	Stag	Hind
Drake	Duck	Husband	Wife	Tailor	Seamstress
Drone	Bee	King	Queen	Tutor	Governess
Earl	Countess	Mallard	Wild duck	Uncle	Aunt

2. By compounds with distinguishing prefixes or suffixes.

Rem.—The prefixes or suffixes may be words from the foregoing list, or they may be words having the modification of gender.

(1) By Prefixes.

MALE.	FEMALE.	MALE.	FEMALE.
Male-servant	*Female*-servant	*He*-goat	*She*-goat
Man-servant	*Maid*-servant	*Buck*-rabbit	*Doe*-rabbit
Man-kind	*Woman*-kind	*Cock*-sparrow	*Hen*-sparrow
He-bear	*She*-bear	*Dog*-fox	*Bitch*-fox

(2) By Suffixes.

Foster-father	Foster-mother	Moor-cock	Moor-hen
Gentle-man	Gentle-woman	Pea-cock	Pea-hen
Grand-father	Grand-mother	Step-father	Step-mother
Land-lord	Land-lady	Step-son	Step-daughter
Mer-man	Mer-maid	Turkey-cock	Turkey-hen
Milk-man	Milk-maid	French-man	French-woman

3. By the modification of gender.

Rem.—The terminations, **ess, trix, ine, a, et, ette, etta,** and **ster** are feminine; **er, or,** and **rake** (or **rick**) are masculine.

Directions.—1. Write the feminine of each of the following nouns. Some have more than one form to denote the female.

Abbott, astor, administrator, adjutor, ambassador, adventurer, anchorite, arbiter, arbitrator, archer, auditor, author, baron, benefactor, canon, caterer, chanter, commander, competitor, conductor, creator, count, czar, dauphin, deacon, deserter, doctor, director, diviner, demander, detractor, don, eagle, editor, embassador, emperor, emulator, enchantor, executor, exactor, farmer, founder, factor, giant, god, governor, hebrew, heir, heritor, hermit, huckster, hunter, host, infante, inhabiter, inheritor, instructor, jesuit, jew, launder, lion, mediator, minister, mister, master, monitor, mayor, negro, offender, ogre, orator, painter, patron, peer, poet, porter, prior, proprietor, prophet, prosecutor, protector, priest, prince, rector, regent, shepherd, solicitor, songster, sorcerer, steward, suitor, spectator, sultan, tailor, testator, tiger, traitor, tyrant, tutor, victor, waiter, warder, wanderer, etc., etc.

2. Write the masculine forms of the following.

Bride, carline, czarina, donna, duchess, heroine, landgravine, margravine, marchioness, palsgravine, pythoness, spinstress, tzarina, signora, widow, vixen.

39. In most of the text books on English grammar, gender is employed (however it may be defined) as a distinction in the form or in the meaning of nouns and pronouns. According to this use of the word, there are four genders; *The Masculine*, *The Feminine*, *The Common*, and *The Neuter*.

1. The name of anything of the male sex is said to be of the **masculine gender;** as, *man*, *boy*, *king*.

2. The name of anything of the female sex is said to be of the **feminine gender;** as, *woman*, *girl*, *queen*.

3. A word which may be applied to objects of either sex is said to be of the **common gender;** as, *child*, *person*, *animal*. But if by the context the sex of the object can be determined, the word is then said to be of the masculine or feminine gender accordingly. Thus, in the

sentence, 'The *child* is not to blame, and you should not punish *her*,' *child* would be said to be of the *feminine gender*.

4. The names of objects which do not have sex are said to be of the **neuter gender;** as, *book, tree, hope, truth.* But when by the figure of personification inanimate things have life ascribed to them, their names are said to be of the *masculine* or the *feminine* gender, according to the sex implied; thus, *ship* would be said to be of the feminine gender in the sentence, 'The *ship* went proudly on *her* way.'

REM.—The practice of basing gender upon the sex or non-sex of the object has caused great confusion. Some authors have attempted to simplify the subject by using the terms *grammatical gender* and *natural gender;* but all gender is *grammatical* gender.

George is masculine, and *Georgia* is feminine, no matter how the words are used; but if the sex or non-sex of the object should determine the gender of the noun, *George* would be of the neuter gender in the sentence, 'His *name* is not *George*.'

Case.

40. Case is the modification of nouns and pronouns to indicate their relations as members of phrases and sentences.

41. The Case of a noun is the *form* which the noun takes to mark its relation to some other word.

42. English nouns have two cases, *The Nominative* and *The Possessive.*

43. The Nominative Case of a noun is its *name-form*, as *boy, boys, hat, hats, truth, John, John Smith.*

44. The Possessive Case of a noun is the *form* which generally indicates that the noun is a modifier of some other noun, or that it is the subject of a participle.

45. In modern English the possessive case of nouns is written according to the following rules:

Rule I.—To form the singular possessive, add **'s** to the nominative.

Rule II.—To form the plural possessive, add **'s** to the nominative unless the nominative ends in **s**, in which case add **'** only.

Rem.—Nouns which ordinarily have no plural *form* may yet take the plural possessive ; as deers', sheeps', swines'.

Rule III.—In forming the possessive case of complex or compound nouns, inflect the last component only.

Rem. 1.—The possessive case, if there were no elision of the vowel, would end in **is** or **es**, the old Saxon suffixes for the genitive case.

Rem. 2.—Rule three applies not only to complex nouns, but to many combinations consisting of nouns with their attendant modifiers ; as, 'The Secretary of the Navy's report,' 'Edward the Third's death,' 'The book is mine and nobody else's.'

So, when anything is the joint or common property of several owners, and their names are used before it to denote ownership, the sign is annexed to the last name only ; as, Smith, Brown and Johnson's store. Smith's, Brown's, and Johnson's store would indicate that each of the three owned a separate store.

In general the principle to be observed in writing the possessive case is to annex the sign to the last word.

Exceptions.—1. The sign **'s** does not indicate the possessive case when affixed to letters, figures, etc. (See Rule VII.)

2. Nouns of more than one syllable ending in **s** or **z** sometimes omit **s** from the possessive singular. (Why ? Give four examples.)

3. Some writers omit the **s** whenever, in their opinion, its use would cause too many hissing or buzzing sounds in the pronunciation of the word; as, *Charles'* book, *Loomis'* Geometry, *Barnes'* Histories, etc.

Pronunciation.—See rules for pronouncing the plurals of nouns. The possessive case of nouns is always pronounced like the English plural.

Directions.—1. Write and pronounce the possessive case of the following: *Mr. Bliss, Mr. Brown, Mr. Rapp, The Queen of England, Mutual Admiration Society, Goetz of the Iron Hand, dog, horse, John, hats, goose, geese, sheep, mouse, mice, Block & Co., Miles, Myers.*

2. Express the following phrases by means of the possessive: The field belonging to Mr. Starns. A *dictionary* named after *Noah Webster*. An *arithmetic* written by *Dr. Robinson*, and *another* written by *Dr. Ray*. The *wives* of *Henry VIII*. *Hats* for *men* and *hats* for *boys*. The *reign* of *Victoria*, the *Queen of England*. The *debates* of *Lincoln* and *Douglas*. For the *sake* of *conscience*. For the *sake* of the *safety* of the *nation*. The *charge* of the *Light Brigade*. For the *sake* of *John* and the *sake* of *no one else*.

46. In the oldest English, nouns had six cases: *Nominative*, *Vocative*, *Accusative*, *Genitive*, *Dative*, and *Ablative* (or *Instrumental*). We have retained the **s** of the Genitive **es**, but all the other endings have been worn away.

47. Many authors teach that case is the *relation* which nouns and pronouns have in phrases and sentences. According to this use of the term, there would have to be as many different cases as there are different relations in which nouns or pronouns can be used, *i.e.*, at least *eight*. (See list of constructions.) Probably, no grammarian would contend that nouns have eight cases, but most of them teach that nouns have an *objective* case. Some add an "*independent*," or "*absolute*" case. To speak of case as relation is to ignore the use of the term in other languages and its real significance in our own. Moreover, instead of simplifying the matter, it confounds etymology with syntax, necessitates confusing distinctions between case-*forms* and case-*relations*, and logically calls for the adoption of several additional names to designate new cases. Furthermore, since verbs (in the infinitive and participial modes), adjectives, adverbs, phrases, and sentences, may be used in many of the relations which a noun may have, they would certainly have case if case were relation.

48. A few authors who reject the doctrine that case is relation, have fallen into errors equally absurd. Some have defined case as, "That modification of nouns and pronouns which, by means of form or position, indicates their relation to other words; or their indepen-

dent use." This really means that case is sometimes *form*, sometimes *position*, and sometimes *both!* In the expression, 'The boy's book,' the case of *boy's* would be its *form;* in the sentence, 'John struck James,' the case of *John* would be its *position;* in the sentence, 'John struck him,' the case of *him* would be both its *form* and *position.*

A very popular writer and teacher defines case as "Anything which may show the relation of nouns or pronouns to other words." If this were true, in the sentence, 'He gave the book to John,' the case of *John* would be the preposition *to*, since *to* shows the relation of *John* to *gave.* So, also, in the sentence, 'Boys, go to school,' the case of *Boys* would be the comma!

49. In favor of the view that case is form and not relation, I quote the following authorities, having selected only such as are of acknowledged weight. The italics are my own.

1. The Century Dictionary thus defines case in grammar: "One of the *forms* having different offices in the sentence which together make up the inflections of a noun."

2. The Imperial Dictionary defines case in grammar as follows: "One of the *forms* in the declension of a noun, pronoun, or adjective; as, the genitive *case.*"

3. Webster's Unabridged Dictionary defines case as follows: "The *form* of substantives in English, or of substantives and adjectives in Latin, Greek, and other languages, *by which* their relations to other parts of the sentence are indicated."

4. The International Dictionary recognizes the new meaning which certain writers have sought to impose upon the word: "One of the *forms*, or the *inflections* or *changes of form*, of a noun, pronoun, or adjective, which indicate its relation to other words, and in the aggregate constitute its declension; the *relation* which a noun or pronoun sustains to some other word."

5. Morris's Historical Grammar. "The different *forms* which a noun (or pronoun) takes, *to mark* its relations to other words in a sentence, are called cases."

6. Bain's Higher English Grammar. "Case is an *inflexion* of the noun (or of the pronoun), *showing* its relation to other words."

7. Colegrove's Scientific Grammar. "Case is the mode of inflection used to show the relation of one word to another."

8. Whitney's Essentials of English Grammar.

(The distinguished author is Professor of Comparative Philology in Yale College, author of several works on language, one of the editors of the Unabridged Dictionary, and Editor in Chief of the Century Dictionary.)

"There is no noun in our language which really has an objective case, a form different from the nominative, and used when the noun is the object either of a verb or of a preposition."

It would seem, therefore, that in the opinion of those best entitled to pronounce judgment in the matter, the case of a noun or pronoun is the *form*, and not the relation of the word. But this granted, the position of those who teach that nouns have two, and pronouns three cases is unassailable.

Declension of Nouns.

50. A noun is declined by naming all its forms in some definite order.

Examples:

1. Nouns of complete declension.

	MASCULINE.			FEMININE.	
	Singular.	**Plural.**		**Singular.**	**Plural.**
Nom.	hero	heroes	**Nom.**	heroine	heroines
Poss.	hero's	heroes'	**Poss.**	heroine's	heroines'

2. Nouns of partial declension—gender wanting.*

	Singular.	**Plural.**		**Singular.**	**Plural.**
Nom.	book	books	**Nom.**	child	children
Poss.	book's	books'	**Poss.**	child's	children's

3. Nouns of partial declension—gender wanting, and defective in number.

	Singular.	Plural.		Singular.	Plural.
Nom.	deer	———	**Nom.**	———	scissors
Poss.	deer's	deers'	**Poss.**	———	scissors'

4. Nouns of partial declension—gender wanting,* but redundant in number.

	Singular.	Plural.		Singular.	Plural.
Nom.	formula	formulas formulæ	**Nom.**	animalcule animalculum	animalcules animalcula
Poss.	formula's	formulas'	**Poss.**	animalcule's	animalcules'

DIRECTION.—Let abundant drill be given in the declension of nouns, and in the pronunciation of both plural and possessive forms.

* *i. e.*, **English** gender.

CHAPTER III.

PRONOUNS.

I. Definition.

PRONOUN: Latin, *pro*—for, noun—name.

51. A Pronoun is a word which may represent a noun, or something which has the construction of a noun.

52. The word, or combination of words, which the pronoun represents, is called the **Antecedent** of the pronoun.

REM.—By some authors, when the antecedent follows the pronoun, it is called the **Subsequent.**

53. The antecedent may, or may not be expressed; it may, or may not be known; it may, or may not have the construction of a noun.

Examples:

1. *Antecedent expressed:*—'The *boy* found *his* knife.'
2. *Antecedent not expressed, but known:*—'I know *who* broke the window.'
3. *Antecedent not expressed and not known:*—'*What* is that?'
4. *Antecedent not a noun but having the construction of a noun:*—'*You who* know can answer;' '*To walk* is so difficult that I shall not attempt *it*;' '*I know that you are honest, which* makes me respect you.'

5. *Antecedent not a noun and not having the construction of a noun:* — '*I spoke kindly to the boy*, for *which* he seemed grateful.'

II. Classification.

54. Pronouns are classified as follows: — *The Personal Pronoun*, *The Relative Pronouns*, and *The Interrogative Pronouns*.

55. The personal and relative pronouns have also the classes *Simple* and *Compound*.

The Personal Pronoun.

56. The Personal Pronoun is the one which has *grammatical person*.

57. The only personal pronoun is the word *I*, of which *you*, *he*, *she*, *it*, *etc.*, are the declined forms.

This is not true historically, but certainly is the case in modern English.

"*Compound Personal Pronouns.*"

58. Consolidated phrases, consisting regularly of the noun self limited by the possessive cases of the personal pronouns, are usually called "*Compound Personal Pronouns.*"

59. They are *myself*, *thyself*, HIMSELF, *herself*, *itself*, and their plurals, *ourselves*, *yourselves*, THEMSELVES.

NOTE.—"HIMSELF and THEMSELVES are anomalous forms in which HIM and THEM are improperly used for HIS and THEIR.' —*Colegrove.*

60. These forms are either *reflexive*, or *intensive*, according as they are used to turn the action back upon the subject, or

merely for the sake of emphasis. Both uses are illustrated in the following sentence:

"And I *myself* sometimes despise *myself*."

61. The simple forms may also be used reflexively; as, 'I sit *me* down,' 'Get *thee* hence,' 'He hurt *him* badly' (The last is ambiguous, however.)

The Relative Pronouns.

62. The Relative Pronouns are those which also perform the office of conjunctions.

63. They are *who*, *which*, *what*, *that*, *as*, and *but*.

64. As to the kinds of antecedents which the different relative pronouns may represent—

1. Who, in modern use, refers to *persons* or *things personified*, but formerly it was applied to lower animals and lifeless objects.

Examples.—MODERN USAGE:—'The man *whom* you saw,' 'Such is the testimony of Mathematics, *who* is always a truthful witness.'

OLDER USAGE:—"A green and gilded snake . . . . *who* with her nimble head approached;" "The winds, *who* take the ruffian billows by the tops."

2. Which, in modern use, refers to *inferior animals* or *lifeless objects*, etc., but was formerly applied to persons.

Examples.—MODERN USAGE:—'The book *which* I study;' 'You are to walk, *which* may fatigue you;' 'We know that all men are mortal, *which* means that all must die.'

OLDER USAGE:—"Our Father *which* art in heaven."

3. What, in modern use, refers to an antecedent which is generally omitted, but which may usually be determined without difficulty. It properly refers only to *inferior animals* or *lifeless objects*, etc. Its possessive case, *whose*, is the same as that of *who*.

Examples.—MODERN USAGE:—'A triangle *whose* sides are equal.'

"*What* he bids, that [ ] do."

"*What* by duty's voice is bidden,
"There where duty's star may guide,
Thither follow, that [ ] accomplish,
Whatsoever else betide."—TRENCH.

Rem.—In these examples the antecedent of *what* is plainly some implied noun which, if expressed, would be modified by *that*. There is not the slightest ground for "expanding" *what* in either example. In the first three examples which follow, *aught*, *matter*, and *nothing*, are the expressed antecedents of *what*. In the last quotation, the antecedents of *what* are understood before *speak* and *preach*.

OLDER USAGE:—"Offer them peace or *aught what* is beside."—PEELE.

"The *matter what* other men wrote."—ASCHAM.

"I fear *nothing*
What can be said against me."—SHAKSPERE.

"*What* I tell you in darkness, that [ ] speak ye in light; and *what* ye hear in the ear, that [ ] preach ye upon the housetops."—MATT.

Rem. 1.—In the oldest English, *who*, *which*, and *what* were interrogative pronouns, and the use of them as relatives is of later origin. The first two were generally sufficient when relatives were needed, and

what was sparingly employed. In modern English, as already stated, the antecedent of *what* (nominative case) is commonly suppressed, but *whose* (the possessive case) is the only possessive used when the antecedent denotes something inferior to man.

Rem. 2.—Most authors teach that *what* is a "double" relative, comprising both a relative and its antecedent, or a modifier of the antecedent, equivalent to *the* (or *that*) *thing which*, *the* (or *those*) *things which*, *the* (or *that*) ——— *which*, *all* ——— *which*, etc. Some, in parsing, state that the word has a "double" construction. Others insist that the word should be "expanded," and the equivalents, instead of the word itself, parsed. Both methods are subject to criticism, in that the history and real use of the word are ignored. The second method of parsing the word is wholly indefensible, though it has the sanction of many able authors and teachers. It does not dispose of the word *what* at all, but of something which has been substituted for it. The adverb *safely* may be equivalent to 'in safety,' or 'with safety;' but who would teach pupils to "expand" the adverb and parse its equivalents!

Rem. 3.—No little fallacy lurks in the word "expanded" as here used, and many teachers who follow this method would reject it at once were the proper word used. By expanding any thing we obtain the same thing in an enlarged form—not one or two entirely different, though equivalent things. *Don't* may be expanded into *do not*, for it is a contraction of these two words. In the sentence 'I *won't* do it,' *won't* may be equivalent to, *have firmly decided not to*, but certainly cannot be expanded into these five words. *What* is doubtless equivalent to *that which*, but it is not a contraction of these words, and cannot be expanded into them. They may be "substituted" for *what*, but to say "substituted" instead of "expanded," would make it impossible for any critical teacher to employ this method of disposing of the word.

4. That, as a relative, may refer to persons, in-

ferior animals, or lifeless objects, etc., and may be replaced by *who* or *which*.

Examples.—'The man *that* toils,' 'The tree *that* grows.'

The foregoing are sometimes called the "proper" relatives, for which *as* and *but* are substitutes in certain relations.

5. As, as a relative, may refer to persons, inferior animals, or lifeless objects, etc., and is often preceded by *such*, *same*, or *as many*, as modifiers of its antecedent expressed or understood. It is not true, however, that the relative *as* is always preceded by these words, nor that *as* is always a relative (as many authors affirm) when it is preceded by one of these "signs."

Examples.—'Such persons *as* have been invited will be made welcome;' 'This tree is of the same height *as* that one is;' 'As many [ ] *as* have tickets can obtain seats.'

NOT A RELATIVE:—'Few people regard such conduct *as* honorable;' 'Some people may consider an act base, while others may regard the same *as* honorable;' 'You think four problems a difficult task, but I have solved three times as many *as* a pastime.'

Rem.—Some authors teach that *as*, in the sentence, "Give such things *as* you can spare," "may be treated as a relative pronoun," but that by expanding the sentence *as* is seen to be a conjunctive adverb —"Give such things *as those are which* you can spare." Suppose, however, that *the* or *those* be substituted for *such*, in either the original sentence or the expanded one, and it will be plain that *as* is merely a substitute for *which* or *that*.

6. But, as a relative, may refer to persons, inferior animals, or lifeless objects, etc., and always has a negative force.

Examples.—"There was not a man *but* did his best:"
"There is no fireside, howsoe'er defended,
But has one vacant chair."

In the first sentence, *but* is equal to *who not*; and in the second it equals *which not* or *that not*.

"*Compound*" *Relatives.*

65. When the adverbs *so*, *ever*, and *soever* are added to certain of the relative pronouns, the resulting forms are called *Compound Relative Pronouns.*

66. The so called compounds are *whoso*, *whoever*, *whosoever*, *whichever*, *whichsoever*, *whatso*, *whatever*, and *whatsoever.*

Rem. 1.—As the effect of the suffixes is to extend or make indefinite the application of the pronouns, the antecedents of these forms are not often expressed, and can seldom be determined with certainty. However, some general term may usually be employed as a virtual antecedent; and the difficulty of selecting such an antecedent for a relative pronoun whose form is simple, is frequently as great as when the relative is "compound."

Example.—'*Whoever* is honest is truthful.'

We cannot say just what the antecedent of *whoever* is, but "person" may be taken as the implied antecedent. The antecedent of *who* in the sentence, "*Who* steals my purse steals trash," cannot be more definitely known.

Rem. 2.—Some authors teach that these forms, as well as the relative *what* are "double," and are to be "expanded" in parsing and analysis. Thus, in the sentence, "Whoever studies will learn," *whoever* is said to be equivalent to *he who*, or *any one who*,—*he* being the antecedent part, and *who* the relative. All the objections which have been offered to this method of disposing of *what*, are obviously applicable here, and need not be repeated.

67. As conjunctions, *who* and *which* are co-ordinative as well as subordinative, but the other relatives are always subordinative.

1. **Who,** as a conjunction, is used—

1. To connect two co-ordinate sentences ; as, 'I wrote a letter to my father, *who* replied immediately.'

In this sentence, *who* is equivalent to *and he.*

2. To introduce a subordinate sentence which modifies the verb in the principal sentence; as, 'Why did you employ John, *who* is wholly incompetent?'

In this sentence, *who* is equivalent to *since he*, or *inasmuch as he*, or *seeing that he.*

3. To introduce a subordinate sentence intended to restrict, define, limit, or explain its antecedent ; as, 'That is the man *who* gave the alarm.'

2. **Which,** as a conjunction, is used in the same way as *who.*

1. As a co-ordinative connective: 'When young I studied grammar, *which* afterward I found a very important subject.' "Cæsar crossed the Rubicon, *which* was in the effect a declaration of war."

In these sentences, *which* is equivalent to *and it.*

2. To introduce a sentence which modifies the verb in the principal sentence ; as, 'Why did you not buy that house, *which* is one of the finest in the city?'

In this sentence, *which* is equivalent to *seeing that it*, or *inasmuch as it*, or *since it.*

3. As a restrictive or defining relative; as, 'This is the letter *which* I received.'

3. **The pronouns, that, as,** and **but,** are always subordinative conjunctions. Each always introduces a

subordinate sentence intended to define, restrict, or explain the antecedent.

Rem.—Formerly, the relatives *who* and *which* were, by careful writers, employed solely as co-ordinative connectives, and *that* was considered the only proper restrictive relative. This distinction is no longer made, but many of our best grammarians believe that its observance should be revived. Certain ambiguities would thus be avoided. For example, when one *says*, 'I wrote a letter to my brother, who lives in New York,' we may not be able to determine whether the meaning is, 'I wrote a letter to my brother, *and he* lives in New York,' or, 'I wrote a letter to my brother *that* lives in New York.' Of course, if the sentence is written, the punctuation will indicate the kind of connective *who* is intended to be.

The Interrogative Pronouns.

68. The Interrogative Pronouns are those which make, or help make, sentences interrogative.

69. They are *who*, *which*, *what*, and *whether*.

1. Who applies to persons only, and supposes entire ignorance as to what the answer will be, as 'Who is that?'

2. Which applies to both persons and things, and inquires for the specific individual or individuals of a known class or group; as, 'Which is the man?'

3. What applies exclusively to things. "It may be called by pre-eminence the interrogative of knowledge, or the expression of a desire to be informed respecting some part of the world."—BAIN.

Examples:—'*What* is man?' '*What* is lightning?' '*What* causes the tides?'

4. Whether, as a pronoun, is now obsolete. It formerly applied to both persons and things, and inquired, 'which one of two,' as, "*Whether* of them twain did the will of his father?"

CAUTION.

Care should be taken not to confound *indirect* interrogative pronouns with relatives. In such expressions as, 'I know *what* the difficulty is,' 'I learned *who* broke the window,' 'I saw *which* was the better man,' and the like, *who*, *which*, and *what* are indirect interrogative pronouns, not relatives.

"In most doubtful cases, the two [the relative, and the interrogative what], may be distingnished by the sign, *ever*. The relative *what* will take *ever* after it without marring the sense, the interrogative *what* will not admit the suffix, *ever*." —HOLBROOK.

Strictly speaking, Mr. Holbrook's statement is not correct. It is true that relative pronouns may be compounded, while interrogative pronouns never are, but adding *ever* to relatives will often "mar," or change, the sense very much. For example, 'William asks *what* I cannot grant,' is not the same as, 'William asks *whatever* I cannot grant.'

Perhaps it is better to say, the relative pronouns, *who*, *which* and *what*, will take the suffix EVER, *and make sense*, but the interrogatives will not.

The best guide to the nature of these pronouns, however, is the sense of the expressions in which they occur.

III. Modifications.

70. Pronouns have the modifications of *Person, Number, Gender*, and *Case.*

71. Person is the modification of pronouns and verbs

which indicates whether the *speaker*, the *person spoken to*, or the *person* or *thing spoken of*, is meant.

72. There are three persons, the *First Person*, the *Second Person*, and the *Third Person*.

73. The First Person is the form of a pronoun (or verb) which indicates the *speaker*.

74. The Second Person is the form which indicates the *person spoken to*.

75. The Third Person is the form which indicates the *person* or *thing spoken of*.

In the discussion of Number, Gender, and Case, already given under nouns, the nature of these modifications was explained. The definitions and statements there given need not be repeated in this place, as any formal changes which may be necessary to adapt them to pronouns can easily be made. In addition to the *nominative* and the *possessive* case of nouns, pronouns have also an *objective* case.

76. The Objective Case is the form which usually indicates that the pronoun is the object either of a transitive verb in the active voice, or of a preposition, or that it is used adverbially, or is the subject of an infinitive.

IV. Declension of Pronouns.

1. The Personal Pronoun:

		Singular.		Plural.	
1st Person.	Nom.	I		We	
	Poss.	My or Mine		Our or Ours	
	Obj.	Me		Us	
		Ordinary Style.	*Solemn Style.*	*Ordinary Style.*	*Solemn Style.*
2d Person.	Nom.	——*	Thou	You	You or Ye
	Poss.	——*	Thy or Thine	Your or Yours	
	Obj.	——*	Thee	——†	——†

* Supplied by the ordinary style, plural.
† Supplied by the nominative.

		Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Neuter.*	
3d Person.	**Nom.**	He	She	It	They
	Poss.	His	Her or Hers	Its	Their or Theirs
	Obj.	Him	——¶	——†	Them

Rem. 1.—*Mine* and *thine* are simply old forms of *my* and *thy*.

Rem. 2.—*Ours*, *yours*, *theirs*, and *hers* are "double genitives," or strengthened forms which *our*, *your*, *their*, and *her* respectively assume when the modified nouns are omitted.

Rem. 3.—The Personal Pronoun has distinct forms for each of the three grammatical persons. It has distinct forms for the *singular* and the *plural* numbers in the *first* and *third* persons. In the second person, ordinary style, the singular number is wholly wanting, but the solemn style shows both numbers. The distinction of *gender* is seen in the third person singular. The *objective case* is wanting (1) in the second person, except the solemn style, singular; and (2) the feminine and the neuter genders of the third person, singular; but elsewhere the distinction of case is fully sustained.

Consult the foregoing paradigm, and verify these statements.

2. The Relative and Interrogative Pronouns.

1. **Who** has three cases—**Nom.** *who*, **Poss.** *whose*, **Obj.** *whom*—but does not have gender, person, or number.

2. **Which** and **that** have no modifications, but *whose* is employed where the relation calls for the possessive case of those words. In parsing, they should be considered as in the nominative case. (Why?)

3. **What** (nominative) has a true possessive case, *whose*, which is in form the same as the possessive case of *who*. It has no other modifications.

† Supplied by the nominative.
¶ Supplied by the first form of possessive.

4. **As, but,** and **whether** have no modifications, but should be considered as in the nominative case. (Why?)

77. A pronoun should agree with its antecedent in person, number, and gender, as far as possible; as, JOHN has lost *his* book; BOYS, study *your* lessons.

Rem.—The principle is usually stated thus: "A pronoun *agrees* with its antecedent in person, number, and gender." If every pronoun had a complete set of persons, numbers, and gender-forms, and no speaker or writer ever made a mistake, this rule would be accurately stated—*and useless*. In the following discussion, the principles relating to the proper forms to be used will be stated, as if every pronoun had all the forms mentioned. The student will supply the words "*if possible*" whenever necessary.

Peculiarities and Exceptions.

As to Person.

1. When two or more connected terms differing as to person are used as the compound antecedent of a pronoun, the pronoun should take the first person if any term is in the first person; but the second person, if any term is in the second person, and no term is in the first; as, HE and I have lost *our* hats; YOU, HE, and I have lost *our* hats; YOU and HE have lost *your* hats.

2. Similarly, if the expressed or implied antecedent is a noun plural in meaning, the pronoun should take the first person, if the speaker is included; but should take the second person if the person spoken to is included and the speaker is not; as, *We* have recited *our* lessons; *You* have recited *your* lessons.

As to Number.

1. *Antecedent a collective noun in the singular number.*

(a) If the noun is singular in meaning, the pronoun should be sin-

gular; as, The HERD is very large. Have you seen *it?* The JURY is in *its* place.

(b) If the noun refers to the individuals composing the collection, the pronoun should be plural; as, The HERD were very timid, and we were at great pains not to frighten THEM; The JURY have agreed upon *their* verdict.

Rem.—The Solecisms, Every person should attend to *their* own business, Let every one study *their* lessons, etc., illustrate the tendency to employ a plural pronoun when the antecedent, though singular, is general.

2. *Antecedent plural in form but singular in meaning.*

In this case the pronoun should be singular; as, Young's NIGHT THOUGHTS is in *its* place on the shelf.

3. *Two or more connected terms used as the compound antecedent.*

(a) If the terms are connected by *and*, and each term refers to a separate thing, the pronoun should generally be plural; as, JOHN and JAMES have studied *their* lessons; BOYS and GIRLS should obey *their* parents.

(b) If the terms are singular and taken distributively, the pronouns should be singular; as, Every FARMER, MECHANIC, and CARRIER should know that *he* is a productive laborer.

4. Editors, kings and other potentates, and occasionally, authors, use *we* in alluding to themselves.

"The plural style is said to have been first used by King John of England; according to others by Richard I. The French and German sovereigns followed the example about the beginning of the thirteenth century."—CENTURY DICTIONARY.

The reason commonly assigned for this use by editors and authors is, that the use of *I* would have the appearance of egotism; but surely the writer's egotism, if he have any, is not atoned for by the adoption of a pedantic solecism.

As to Gender.

1. *Antecedent a collective noun in the singular.*

The pronoun should be of the neuter gender unless the noun refers to the individuals composing the collection, when the pronoun should be plural, and of course would not have a gender form.

2. *When the antecedent denotes a person, but does not have gender,* and the sex cannot be otherwise inferred, or is unimportant, the pronoun should take the masculine form; as, Every one [ ] should study *his* lesson; Each PERSON will receive *his* mail at the office; *He* that will not work shall not eat.

3. *Antecedents composed of two or more singular nouns taken distributively, and denoting different sexes.*

In this case, as the English language does not have the singular number and common gender, much embarrassment results. Usage differs. (a) *Many writers sacrifice number.*

Examples.—Every BOY and GIRL should study *their* lessons; "Every PERSON'S happiness depends in part on the respect *they* meet in the world."—PALEY. "Then shalt thou bring forth that MAN or that WOMAN unto thy gates, and thou shalt stone *them* with stones till *they* shall die."—BIBLE. "My lord says that NOBODY wears *their* own hair."—THACKERAY. "Not on outward charms should MAN or WOMAN build *their* pretentions to please."—OPIE.

This usage has the approval of several noted grammarians, including BAIN, from whose Higher English Grammar the foregoing examples are taken. (b) By most authors two rules are prescribed: (1) Avoid this difficulty if possible, even recasting the sentence to escape from the dilemma; (2) When it is impossible to avoid it, use "*he or she*," "*his or her*," or "*him or her*," thus, Every BOY or GIRL should study *his or her* lesson.

CHAPTER IV.

ADJECTIVES.

I. Definition.

ADJECTIVE : Latin, *adjectivus*—that is added.

79. An adjective is a word used principally to modify a noun or something which has the construction of a noun.

"A word used with a noun, or substantive, to explain a quality of the thing named, or something attributed to it, or to limit or define it, or to specify or describe a thing, as distinct from something else."—INTERNATIONAL DICTIONARY.

To say that an adjective *limits* a *noun* or *pronoun* is to stop far short of the whole truth.

II. Classification.

80. Adjectives are classified as Definitive and Descriptive.

81. Definitive Adjectives are those which specify or limit ; as, '*That* man '; 'The *fourth* paragraph '; '*Every* day.'

82. Definitive Adjectives have the sub-classes, *Articles*, *Numerals*, and *Pronominals*.

83. The Articles are the words *the* and *a* (or *an*) when placed before nouns to limit their signification.

84. The is called the *Definite Article*, and is used (1) to

designate or specify a general conception; (2) to limit more or less definitely, or (3) to personify or individualize a species.

85. A (or **an**) is called the *Indefinite Article*, and signifies one or any, but less emphatically.

86. The Numeral Adjectives are those definitive adjectives which are used in numbering and counting.

87. A Cardinal Numeral is one which tells how many ; as, *one, two, three, etc.*

88. An Ordinal Numeral is one which tells the position of an object as a number of a series ; as, *first, second, third, etc.*

89. The Pronominal Adjectives are all definitive adjectives except articles and numeral adjectives.

90. A Demonstrative Pronominal is one which points out definitely ; as, *this, that, both, etc.*

91. A Distributive Pronominal is one which represents each object of a group as taken separately ; as, *each, every, either, etc.*

92. An Interrogative Pronominal is one which may make, or help make a sentence interrogative ; as, '*What* money have you ?' '*Which* book do you like ?'

93. An Indefinite Pronominal is one that specifies or refers to objects in a general way, either in groups or singly, but without pointing out with particularity ; as, *all, some, many, much, etc.*

94. Descriptive Adjectives are those which describe the object signified by the modified term.

95. Descriptive Adjectives have the sub-classes *Qualitative* and *Material.*

96. A Qualitative Adjective is one which expresses some quality of the object ; as, *good*, *tall*, *indolent*.

97. A Material Adjective is one which suggests the material of which the object is composed ; as, *wooden*, *woolen*, *watery*, *inky*, *brassy*.

98. The following sub-classes, though not obtained by logical division, are sometimes mentioned :

1. Proper Adjectives, or those derived from proper nouns ; as, *French*, *English*, *Spanish*, *etc.*

2. Participial Adjectives, or those derived from, or having the form of, participles; as, 'The *singing* bird,' 'The *murmuring* brook' ; also, *resplendent*, *confident*.

3. Periodical Adjectives, or those derived from names of periods of time; as, *daily*, *hourly*, *annual*, *etc.*

4. Replicative Adjectives, or those expressing repetition; as, *single*, *double*, *triple*, *etc.*

5. Multiplicative Adjectives, or those which tell how many fold ; as, *twofold*, *threefold*, *duplex*, *duplicate*, *etc.*

6. Combinational Adjectives, or those derived from names of combinations ; as, *triangular*, *heptagonal*, *quadrilateral*, *etc.*

III. Modifications.

Comparison.

99. Comparison is the modification of adjectives and adverbs, by which difference in the degree of what is denoted by the adjective or adverb is indicated.

100. There are said to be three degrees of comparison, the *Positive Degree*, the *Comparative Degree*, and the *Superlative Degree*.

Some authors add the *Diminutive Degree.*

101. The Positive Degree is the simplest, or uninflected, form of the adjective ; as, *young*, *good*, *authentic*, *etc.*

102. The Comparative Degree is the form which expresses more or less, "as reckoned from some other condition or quality of the same object or of a different object"; as, *younger*, *better*, *more authentic*, *less authentic.*

103. The Superlative Degree is the form which expresses the quality in the highest or lowest degree that can exist within a group or class of objects ; as, *youngest*, *best*, *most authentic*, *least authentic.*

104. The Diminutive Degree is the form which expresses subordinate or indistinct quality, and is formed by adding **ish** to the positive ; as, *bluish*, *brackish.*

REGULAR COMPARISON.

105. Adjectives regularly form the comparative degree by adding **er** to the positive.

NOTE.—The rules of spelling are observed : (1) Final **e** silent is omitted; (2) Final **y** preceded by a consonant is changed to **i**, and (3) A final consonant preceded by a short accented vowel is doubled.

IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

106. Sometimes the comparatives and superlatives are not formed from the positive, but from some word now obsolete, as *good* (or *well*), *better*, *best.*

The positive of *better* is **bet** or **bat**, from which the comparative and superlative forms (originally *beter a* and *bet(e)st*) are derived regularly.

107. Some adjectives take the superlative ending **most;** as, *aft, after, aftermost.*

108. Sometimes a contraction gives rise to two forms of the superlative; as, *late, later, latest* or *last; fore, former, foremost* or *first.*

109. Sometimes one or more forms are wanting; as, *top*, ——, *topmost.*

To this class belong certain adjectives ending in *ior* (Latin comparative), which do not have the positive and superlative; as, *junior, anterior, prior.*

PERIPHRASTIC COMPARISON.

110. When the adjective has more than two syllables, or is a compound word, the comparison usually takes place by means of *more* and *most*, to denote increase of quality, and *less* and *least* to denote decrease of quality.

REM. 1.—The adjectives in such cases should be considered as complex.

REM. 2—"This substitute for the regular comparison dates from the 13th century, and has made its way largely by being a useful help toward euphony."—BAIN.

REM. 3.—Adjectives are sometimes put in the possessive case:

1. When the modified noun is omitted, but would be put in the possessive case if expressed; as, Bear ye one *another's* burdens.

2. When the modified noun precedes the adjective and is in a construction calling for the possessive case; as, This is my hat, and nobody *else's* hat.

NOTE.—In the last example *nobody* modifies *hat*, denoting ownership, and would take the possessive case if *else's* were omitted.

REM. 4.—A very few adjectives have number; as, *this-these, that-those, other-others, etc.*

EXERCISES.

Direction.—Arrange in tabular form the different degrees of the following adjectives:

good, worse, far, further, former, late, more, least, old, inmost, out, upper, under, hither, over, after, nether, down, top, north, northern, south, southern.

ILLUSTRATION—

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
good (**bet**),	better,	best,
bad, ill,	worse,	worst,
far,	farther,	farthest,
etc.	*etc.*	*etc.*

CHAPTER V.

VERBS.

I. Definition.

VERB: Latin, *verbum*—word.

"The name was given to this class of words because it was thought that the assertive element was the pre-eminent word in the sentence."—WELSH.

111. A Verb is a word used to express action or the suffering of an action, or being or state of being.

112. The Subject of a verb is the word, or combination of words, denoting that concerning which the verb expresses, being or state of being, or action or the suffering of an action; as, 'JOHN *walks*,' 'The BOY whom YOU *saw is* my brother,' 'JOHN and JAMES *returned*.'

Rem.—In parsing, if the subject is complex or compound, it is customary to call the *base* of the subject the subject of the verb.

113. The Object of a verb is the word, or combination of words, denoting that which receives the act expressed by the verb; as, 'John *struck* JAMES,' 'I closed the DOOR.' (See Article 276, Rem. 4.)

Rem.—In parsing, if the object is complex or compound, the *base* is called the object.

113. The Principal Parts of a verb are those from which the other parts or forms are derived, viz.:

1. The Present Tense,
2. The Past Tense,
3. The Present Participle,
4. The Past Participle.

} *active—indicative—first—singular.*

II. Classification.

114. As to form, verbs are *Regular* or *Irregular.*

115. A Regular Verb is one whose past tense and past participle are by inflection made to end in **ed.**

116. An Irregular Verb is one whose past tense and past participle do not, on account of inflection, end in **ed.**

Rem. 1.—The syllable **ed** is sometimes shortened into **t.**

Rem. 2.—Sometimes the past tense and the past participle of the regular verbs are formed by adding **ed** to the present, as walk-**ed**; sometimes only **d** is added, as love-**d.**

Rem. 3.—Sometimes the past tense and the past participle are made to end in **ed** by merely omitting a vowel; as, *feed—fed, lead—led*, etc. In the case of *flee*, the ending **ed** is obtained by omitting the final vowel and adding **d.** Under the foregoing definitions, therefore, these verbs are irregular. Would it not be better to base the classification upon results instead of processes, and include among the regular verbs all verbs whose past tense and past participle end in **ed**?

Rem. 4.—The two classes of verbs (Regular and Irregular) represent very imperfectly the classes "*Weak*" and "*Strong*," to be met in the more thorough works on grammar.

The "Weak" verbs are those which form their past tense and past participle in **-d, -ed,** or **-t.** They include all the derivative and borrowed verbs in the language.

The "Strong" verbs form their past tense by modifying the vowel of the present tense, and their past participle ends (or did end) in **-n,** or **-en.**

(*A List of Irregular Verbs will be found on pages 86, 87, 88, 89.*)

117. As to use, verbs are classified as *Transitive* and *Intransitive.*

118. A Transitive Verb is one which requires an object.

Not, however, "to complete its meaning," or "to make the statement complete," or to denote "that upon which the act terminates," but because such verbs imply that such a modifier is to be used.

Rem.—The object may, or may not be expressed; as, 'The house *which* I built,' 'The house [ ] I built.'

But in the following sentences the verbs are different: 'The boy *can read* his *essay*,' 'The boy *can read* well.' No object is understood in the second sentence, for the meaning of *read* as there used is '*to peruse something written or printed*,' or, '*to utter aloud the words of something written or printed.*' In the first sentence *read* means, '*to peruse*,' '*to utter aloud.*'

119. An Intransitive Verb is one which cannot take an object.

Rem. 1.—A verb usually intransitive may become transitive:—(1) When made to govern a **cognate object**—*i. e.*, an object which repeats in a noun form the idea involved in the verb; as, 'I *dreamed* a *dream.*' (2) When used in a causative sense; as, 'The boy *flies* his kite.' No preposition is "understood" before dream in the first sentence. It would be nonsense to say that the meaning is, 'He dreamed *in* or *with* a dream.'

120. When the verb *to be* expresses the inclusion of the

thing denoted by its subject in something denoted by some other word, or combination of words, it is called **the copula.**

121. The word, or words, denoting that in which the subject is included is called **the complement.**

Examples.

1. The subject subordinate to the complement :—

'Horses are quadrupeds.' .....

2. The subject and the complement coextensive:—

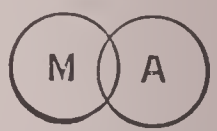
'Nouns are names.' .....

Rem. 1.—Of course, when the verb is modified by the adverb *not*, the sentence denies that the subject is included in the complement. In that case the relation between the subject and complement is that of exclusion, which can also be illustrated graphically; as, *'Nouns are not verbs.'*.....

Rem. 2. Sometimes the base of the subject must be restricted; as, *Some* quadrupeds are horses.....

If the larger circle represents quadrupeds, and the smaller, horses, the diagram illustrates the truth of the statement; but it also shows that the statement would not be true if the word *some* were omitted.

Again, take the sentence, *Some men are authors*.....



If of the two circles, *M* represents men and *A* represents authors, the diagram illustrates the truth of the statement, and also shows that the statement would not be true if *some* were omitted.

But the diagram also shows that the "*some men*" who are authors do not comprise *all* authors; and this is true, since some women are authors.

Rem. 3.—The verb *be* (in its conjugated forms) is the only pure copula, but *seem*, *appear*, and *become* are sometimes said to be copulas. This is not strictly true, for *seem* and *appear* obviously do not imply that the subject *is* included in the complement; and the verb *become* implies more than this. It signifies "*come* or *grow to be*." Still, it is customary in such expressions as, He *seems* a *friend*, He *appears honest*, He *became* a *teacher*, etc., to treat the verbs as copulas, and the words that follow them as complements.

Rem. 4.—The complement may be a *noun*, *pronoun*, *adjective*, *verb* (*infinitive or participle*), *preposition and its object*, or a *subordinate sentence*. In parsing, if the complement is complex or compound, the base of the complement is usually called the complement.

Examples.—'The man is my *friend;*' 'If I were *you;*' 'The apples are *large;*' 'To die is *to sleep;*' 'Educating children is *developing their powers;*' 'In the room is *within the room;*' 'My belief is *that he will succeed;*' 'I do not know why yet I live to say, 'This thing's *to do*.'

Directions.—Point out the subject and the complement; and state whether, in the first eight sentences, the subject is subordinate to the complement, or coextensive with it. Illustrate the different relations of subjects and complements, using circles as shown above.

1. Men are mortal. 2. A good name is a fortune. 3. Are you a student? 4. I may be one who is chosen. 5. When are two triangles similar? 6. We shall be industrious. 7. May this be my seat? 8. A triangle is a polygon bounded by three sides. 9. We are not your enemies. 10. You are not the man. 11. Some persons are not honest. 12. This book is not my geography. 13. Many books are not interesting. 14. The question is, What can be done? 15. Some of the apples on this tree are not ripe. 16. The man appears friendly. 17. This man seems excited. 18. We object to his being a lawyer. 19. His

appearing young is no reason for believing that he is incompetent. 20. The man became my friend. 21. No men are immortal. 22. Some people are dishonest. 23. Whatever is, is right. 24. What must be, will be. 25. Do you know who he is? 26. Not to be honest, is not to be respectable. 27. I do not know what the matter is. 28. How many there are in this world who are not contented!

Directions.—Illustrate by means of diagrams the defects in the following statements. Make the necessary changes to express the truth in each case.

1. Men are good scholars. 2. Books are leather-bound volumes. 3. Signs of thought are words. 4. Good readers are moral. 5. Poor readers are good singers. 6. Tornadoes are destructive of human life. 7. Those who study grammar are correct speakers; John is a person who studies grammar; therefore John is a correct speaker. 8. Light is opposed to darkness; sponge is light; hence sponge is opposed to darkness. 9. Diseases are fatal; toothache is a disease; hence toothache is fatal. 10. All men are mortal; all horses are mortal; therefore all horses are men. 11. All debtors are dishonest; John is a debtor; hence John is dishonest. 12. Some good readers are good singers; Charles is a good reader; therefore Charles is a good singer. 13. Six is a half dozen; two and four are six; therefore either four or two is a half dozen. 14. All the books in my library are a hundred volumes; this arithmetic is a book in my library; hence this book is a hundred volumes. 15. Some men are dishonest; Charles and Henry are some men; therefore they are dishonest. 16. A swallow is a bird; the water in this glass is a swallow; hence the water in this glass is a bird.

122. As to structure, verbs are classified as *Simple* and *Complex.*

123. A Simple Verb is one which consists of a single word; as, I *speak*, John *writes*, The rain *descended.*

124. A Complex Verb is one which consists of two or more words; as, I *shall come*, You *may have heard* the sound, I *shall have been informed.*

125. As to relative importance, the parts of a complex verb are *Principal* and *Auxiliary.*

126. The Principal Verb is the base of a complex verb; as, *come*, *heard*, and *informed*, in the foregoing examples.

127. Auxiliary Verbs are those used in the conjugation of other verbs to help express the different modifications.

128. List of auxiliary verbs—**Do, be, have, shall, will, may, can, must.**

Rem. 1.—Historically, the auxiliary verbs were themselves principal verbs, followed by the infinitives and participles of what are now called the principal verbs.

Rem. 2.—*Do*, *be*, *have*, *will*, and *can*, are also used as principal verbs.

Direction.—Write sentences illustrating the use of these verbs as principal verbs. Be sure to consult the dictionary for the meaning of *can.*

Discussion of the Auxiliary Verbs.

129. Do, as an auxiliary verb, has the forms *do*, *does*, *dost*, *doth*, *did*, and *didst.* It is really transitive, the principle verb in the infinitive form being its object. It is employed to form the emphatic style, in the present and past tenses of the indicative mode, and the present and present perfect tenses of the imperative mode. (See second table of conjugations)

Rem. 1.—The emphatic style does not always express emphasis. It is used—

1. In interrogative and negative expressions; as, (1) *Do* you *see* this pencil? (2) I *did* not *find* my book.

2. In imperative sentences; as, *Do* not *retreat; Do* you *go.*

3. To express emphasis; as, I *do wish* you would be quiet; He *did say* it.

4. For metrical or other effect; as, He writes as if joy *did make* him write; This just reproach their virtue *does excite.*

Rem. 2.—Some authors teach that *do* is a substitue for the principal verb, in such expressions as, "Remain quiet; unless you *do*, I shall punish you." It seems more reasonable, however, to believe that there is merely an ellipsis of the principal verb, or that the word *do* itself is the principal verb: Thus, "Unless you *do* [*remain quiet*]," "Unless you *do* [*this thing*]," or "Unless you *do* [*so*]."

130. Be, as an auxiliary verb, is used to form the passive voice and the progressive style of other verbs. (See Article 154, Rem. 2; and Article 162, Rem. 1.)

131. Have, as an auxiliary verb, has the forms, *have*, *hast*, *hath*, *had*, *hadst*, and *having*.

It is used to form all the "perfect," or secondary tenses.

Rem.—In such expressions as, *I had rather go*, *You had better stay*, *etc.*, *had* is not a substitute for *would*, but is the principal verb (in the past tense, with an indefinite force). *Go* and *stay* are infinitives whose signs are omitted.

In the expressions, *I'd rather go*, *You'd better stay*, *He'd sooner steal than starve*, *etc.*, **'d** may represent either *had* or *would.*

Note.—For full explanations of the idioms *had rather*, *had better*, *etc.*, see Century Dictionary

132. Sha'l and **will** are used to form the future and future perfect tenses.

133. Shall has the forms, *shall*, *shalt*, *should*, and *shouldst.*

134. Will as an auxiliary verb, has the forms, *will*, *wilt*, *would*, and *wouldst.*

135. In the ordinary style, *shall* is used as the auxiliary in the first person, and *will* in the second and third; in the emphatic style, *will* is used in the first person, and *shall* in the second and third.

136. May and **Can** are used to form the present, past, present perfect, and past perfect, tenses of the potential mode.

137. May has the forms, *may*, *mayest* or *mayst*, *might* and, *mightest* or *mightst*.

138. Can has the forms, *can*, *canst*, *could*,and *couldst*.

139. May expresses permission, possibility, or concession; as, I *may go*=I have permission to go, or, possibly I shall go. Placed before the subject, *may* denotes a wish; as, *May* you prosper.

140. Can expresses power; as, I *can* go=I am able to go.

141. Must is used in forming the present and the present perfect tenses of the potential mode.

142. Must has only one form. It denotes compulsion, or certainty; as, He *must* work, He *must* have society, It *must* be so.

143. As to the number of principal parts, verbs are classified as *Complete*, *Redundant*, and *Defective*.

144. A Complete Verb is one which has the regular number of principal parts, *(i. e. four)* and but one form for each; as, the verb *to see*; pp. *see—saw—seeing—seen*.

145. A Redundant Verb is one which has duplicate forms in the past tense or past participle; as, *cleave;* pp. *cleave—cleft*, *clove* or *clave—cleaving—cleft*, or *cloven*.

146. A Defective Verb is one which lacks one or more of the principal parts. They are the auxiliary verbs *shall*, *may*, *can*,and *must*, and the verbs *beware*, *ought*, *quoth*, *wist*,and *wit*.

147. *Methinks*, *meseems*, etc., are sometimes included, but they are hardly to be classed as verbs, being merely consolidated forms of

verb and subject. Detach the subject, and the verbs are complete.

148. Certain verbs which are used in the third person only are sometimes called **Impersonal** (or **Uni-personal**) **Verbs;** as, *rain*, *snow*, *hail*, etc.

Examples of use: 'It *rains*,' 'It *snows*,' etc.

Exercises.

Directions.—Classify the verbs in the following sentences. Point out the subject. Point out the objects of such verbs as are transitive. Point out the complements of all copulas, and state whether the subjects are subordinate to, or coextensive with the complements. Express the relation graphically:

1. The apple is ripe. 2. The boy plays marbles. 3. Men sail around the world. 4. Evil actions live in brass. 5. The hero's blood is not to be controlled. 6. I am acquainted with John. 7. There died my father, no man's debtor. 8. Do you hope to return? 9. I dare do all that may become a man. 10. Use makes practice easy, and practice begets custom, and a habit of things. 11. This was a saying of Pythagoras: "Those are our friends that reprimand us, not those who flatter us." 12. Many remain beginners all their lives, because they have no confidence. 13. The great controversy between Episcopalians and Presbyterians was, by what authority orders are received. 14. The good, the sensible, and the modest are seldom offended. 15. Where statesmen are ruled by faction and interest, they can have no zeal for the glory of their country. 16. Gold can make its way through the midst of guards, and break through the strongest barriers. 17. Cromwell said: "The king is a man of great parts and great understanding." 18. All other debts may compensation find; but love is strict, and must be paid in kind.

III. Modifications.

149. The modifications of verbs are *Style*, *Voice*, *Mode*, *Tense*, *Person*, and *Number*.

Style.

150. Style, as a modification of verbs, has reference to their general form.

151. There are four kinds of style:—The *Ordinary*, the *Solemn*, the *Progressive*, and the *Emphatic*.

Some authors add the *Interrogative Style*.

152. The Ordinary Style is that commonly used in speaking and writing; as, 'I *study*,' 'You *may go*,' 'He *has been here*.'

153. The Solemn Style is the old Ordinary Style; as, 'Thou *art*,' 'Thou *mayst go*,' 'Thou *walkedst*.'

Rem. 1.—The Solemn Style differs from the Ordinary Style only in the second and third person of the singular number, and is distinguished by the endings **t,** or **st** in the second person and **th,** or **eth** in the third person, as will be shown under Conjugation.

Rem. 2.—The Solemn Style is used in the Bible, among the Society of Friends, and frequently in grave discourse and in poetry.

154. The Progressive Style is the style that denotes the act or state as continuing.

Rem. 1.—The auxiliary verbs (when used as auxiliaries) and the verb *be* (copulative) have no progressive style.

Rem. 2.—The Progressive Style is made by adding the present participle of the principal verb to the appropriate mode, tense, person, and number, of the verb **be.** By adding the present active participle to the verb **be,** we obtain active progressive style; and by adding the present passive participle, we obtain the passive progressive style.

155. The Emphatic Style is the style which denotes emphasis. It has two forms, the *Ordinary Emphatic*, and the *Solemn Emphatic*.

Rem. 1.—The following forms may be made emphatic: (1) The present and the past tenses of the indicative and the subjunctive modes, active voice, of all verbs except *be*. (2) The imperative mode and the future and future perfect tenses, both voices, of all verbs.

Rem. 2.—The Emphatic Style is made by using *do*, *did*, *dost*, *doth*, and *didst* before certain forms of the principal verb; and by transposing *shall* and *will* in the future and future perfect tenses, as will be shown under *Conjugation*.

156. The Interrogative Style is the form which indicates that a question is intended.

Rem.—The "Interrogative Style" is merely an arrangement of the parts of the sentence, including the verb and its subject. Each of the four styles may be made interrogative by using the verb, or some part of it, before the subject.

Voice.

157. Voice is the modification of verbs to indicate the relation between the verb and its subject.

158. English verbs have two voices, the *Active* and the *Passive*.

Rem.—In some other languages, verbs have also a "*Middle Voice*," to denote that the doer of an act also receives it. In English, the active voice and a reflexive pronoun are used for this purpose; as, He *hurt himself*.

159. An Active Form is one which, in the case of verbs expressing action, usually implies that the person or thing denoted by the subject does the act expressed by the verb; as, 'Merchants *sell* goods,' 'He *may have done* this.'

160. The Active Voice of a verb is the aggregate of its active forms.

Rem. 1.—All verbs may have this form, and most intransitive verbs are never used in the passive.

Rem. 2.—The subject of a verb in the active voice does not always designate the actor. (1) Many verbs, including some which are transitive as well as some which are intransitive, do not express action; as, "A son *owes* help and support to his father," "Divine contemplations *exceed* the pleasures of sense," 'The book *lies* on the table.' 'The old man *rests* in his easy chair.' (2) Sometimes a verb expressing action is passive in sense though active in form; as, 'Peaches *sell* at a dollar a bushel,' 'This wagon *draws* easily.'

161. A Passive Form is one which, in the case of verbs expressing action, usually implies that the thing denoted by the subject receives the act expressed by the verb: *i. e.*, that the subject is also the object of the verb; as, 'The door *was shut*,' 'The boy *has been educated*,' 'I *might have been informed* of this.'

162. The Passive Voice of a verb is the aggregate of its passive forms.

Rem. 1.—The passive voice is made by adding the past active participle of the principal verb to the conjugated verb *be*. Any passive form may be made by adding the past active participle of the principal verb to the appropriate style, mode, tense, person, and number of the verb *be*. All verbs, regardless of meaning, are in the passive voice when they have this form. When they do not have this form, they are in the active voice, regardless of the meaning they convey. The past active participle, when used participially, is always passive in meaning. (See Rem. 2, under Article 160.)

Rem. 2.—A verb which is in the passive voice does not always imply that the subject denotes that which receives the act; as, 'The melancholy days *are come*.' 'They *were gone*.' 'He *was presented* with a gold-headed cane.'

Rem. 8. In the sentences, 'He *was laughed* at,' 'The matter *has been looked* into,' 'It *shall be attended* to,' etc., the verbs though intransitive are in the passive voice. The prepositions are not parts of the verbs.

163. When a verb in the active voice is changed to the passive voice, the following important facts are to be noted:

1. The Subject of the active verb may, or may not be retained. If retained, it usually becomes an adverbial modifier of the passive verb, and the preposition *by* is used to show the relation; as,

(ACTIVE) 'John shut the door.'
(PASSIVE) 'The door was shut *by John*.'

2. If the verb is transitive, the object of the active verb usually becomes the subject of the passive verb, as shown in the foregoing example. To this principle there are the following exceptions:

(1) **The Indirect Object** of the active verb may become the subject of the passive verb, and the object become an adverbial modifier of the passive verb, with or without a preposition to show the relation; as,

(ACTIVE) They presented him [*indirect object*] a book [*object*].
(PASSIVE) A book was presented *him* (or *to him*).
(PASSIVE) He was presented a *book* (or *with* a *book*).

(2) **The Factitive Object** of the active verb may become the subject of the passive verb, and the object become an adverbial modifier of the passive verb, with a preposition to show the relation; as,

(ACTIVE) He made the tree [*object*] a boat [*factitive object*].
(PASSIVE) The tree was made a boat.
(PASSIVE) A boat was made *of* the *tree*.

(3) When the object of the active verb is an infinitive, the subject

of the infinitive is sometimes used as the apparent subject of the passive verb; as,

(ACTIVE) 'We believe the *lake* to be deep.'
(PASSIVE) 'The *lake* is believed to be deep.'

Rem.—The real subject of *is believed* is 'The lake —— to be deep,' and *lake* is still the subject of *to be*. We cannot "believe" a lake, but we can believe *that a lake is deep*. In the sentence, 'He is believed by us to be honest,' *he* is the subject of *to be*. The sentence declares, not that we believe *him*, but *that he is honest*. From its position, however, *he* appears to be the subject of *is believed*, and is thus attracted into the nominative case,

3. When an intransitive verb is changed from the active to the passive voice.

(1) **The Subject** of the active verb may be retained as the subject of the passive verb; as,

(ACTIVE) 'The melancholy *days* have come.'
(PASSIVE) 'The melancholy *days* are come.'

(2) **The Object** of a preposition may become the subject of the passive verb, the preposition being retained after the verb; as,

(ACTIVE) We laughed at John.
(PASSIVE) John was laughed at.

Directions. Change the italicized verbs in the following sentences to the passive voice, making such other changes as may be necessary. Be sure that the constructed sentences express the same thought as the original sentences.

1. John *wrote* a letter to his father. 2. He *acquainted* me with the fact. 3. People *thought* that the king was mad. 4. People *knew* that the earth is round. 5. People *believed* the earth to be round. 6.

Some people *said* that he was a wise man. 7. They *laughed* at Henry and John. 8. The man *desires* employment, but we *can give* him none. 9. I understand that some one *has spoken* to Henry about the matter. 10. People *say* that the desire to be known *caused* his downfall. 11. People *believe* the story to be true. 12. People *believe* the desire to be known *caused* his downfall. 13. People *say* that John *has read* many books. 14. People *believe* John to have done so. 15. We *caused* John to be promoted. 16. We *saw* him brush the dews away. 17. Our friends *have gone.* 18. We *believe* that the melancholy days *have come.* 19. Cheerful looks *make* every dish a feast. 20. A kind eye *makes* contradiction an assent. 21. We *elected* him captain. 22. He *made* water wine. 23. Macaulay *calls* France the land of cornfields. 24. We *thought* him a student. 25. We *believed* him planning an escape. 26. We *heard* him giving the alarm.

Mode.

164. Mode is the modification of verbs to denote the manner in which the action, being, etc., is conceived—*i.e.*, as certain, contingent, possible, necessary, desirable, or the like.

165. Verbs have six modes, the *Indicative*, the *Subjunctive*, the *Potential*, the *Imperative*, the *Infinitive*, and the *Participial.*

Rem.—The first four modes are the *finite modes;* the last two are the *not-finite modes.*

166. An Indicative Form is one which usually denotes certainty; as, 'I *write*,' 'The boy *shall be punished*,' 'You *have seen him.*'

167. The Indicative Mode of a verb is the aggregate of its indicative forms.

Rem. 1.—A verb in the indicative mode may be in the interroga-

tive style; as, '*Do* I *write?*' '*Shall* the boy *be punished?*' '*Have* you *seen* him?'

Rem. 2.—A verb in the indicative mode may be used to make a conditional statement if doubt is not to be implied; as, 'If he *does* it, he shall be punished.' 'If he *comes*, I will inform you.'

Rem. 3.—The auxiliary verbs used in the indicative mode, active voice, are *have*, *shall*, and *will;* and, in the passive voice, the conjugated verb *be*.

168. A Subjunctive Form is one which usually denotes condition attended with doubt; as, 'If he *come*,' 'If he *have done* this,' '*Were* I you.'

169. The Subjunctive Mode of a verb is the aggregate of its subjunctive forms.

Rem. 1.—With the exception of the verb *to be*, no verb in the active voice can be used in the subjunctive mode except in the third, singular, of the present and present-perfect tenses. It is customary, however, to give to this mode three or four tenses in the active voice, using the conditional indicative where the true subjunctive is wanting. (See tables of Conjugations.)

Rem. 2.—The conjunctions *if*, *though*, *lest*, and *unless* are sometimes called the signs of the subjunctive mode; but as they are used quite as frequently with the indicative, and the potential mode, and the subjunctive mode is frequently used without them, it is plain that they are not signs of any mode. The sign of the subjunctive mode is the subjunctive mode.

Rem. 3.—The subjunctive mode cannot be used in the interrogative style.

Rem. 4.—The auxiliaries used in the subjunctive mode are, *have*, in the active voice, and the conjugated verb *be*, in the passive voice.

170. A Potential Form is one which denotes power,

possibility, liberty, or necessity; as, 'You *can stay*,' 'It *may be*,' 'You *may go*,' 'You *must go*.'

171. The Potential Mode of a verb is the aggregate of its potential forms.

Rem. 1.—A verb in the potential mode is used only in the present, present-perfect, past and past-perfect tenses.

Rem. 2.—The auxiliary verbs used in this mode, in the active voice, are *have*, *may*, *can*, *must*, and *should;* in the passive voice, the conjugated verb *be* is used as the auxiliary.

Rem. 3.—A verb in this mode may be in the interrogative style; as, '*Should* he *do* so?' '*May* he *go?*' '*Can* this *happen?*'

172. An Imperative Form is one which expresses command, entreaty, advice, or exhortation; as, '*Go*,' '*Try* to improve,' '*Be* kind to one another.'

Rem. 1.—A verb in the Imperative Mode is usually in the present tense, but may be in the present-perfect tense; as, *Have done* with that nonsense.

Rem. 2.—The subject of a verb in the imperative mode is usually omitted unless it follows the verb. The subject is generally a pronoun in the second person, but may be a pronoun in the first or third person; or, it may be a noun which denotes something spoken of. Thus, in the following sentence, *we* is the subject of *break*, which is in the imperative mode:

> *Break we* our watch up; and by my advice,
> Let us impart what we have seen to-night
> Unto young Hamlet.
>
> —*From Hamlet, Act I, Scene 2, lines 168-170.*

In the following sentence *we* is the subject of *turn:*

> *Turn we* a moment fancy's rapid flight. —*Thompson.*

In the following, *she* is the subject of *be defin'd*, which is in the imperative mode:

> And what is reason? *Be she* thus *defin'd:*
> Reason is upright stature of the soul.
> —*From Young's Night Thoughts.*

In the following sentences the italicized nouns denote things spoken of, and would take the third-person form if nouns had grammatical person:

Be man's peculiar *work* his sole delight.
Ruin seize thee, ruthless king!
Poison *be* their *drink!*
Dumb *be* the atheist's *tongue* abhorred!

173. The Not-Finite Modes are those which do not have the modifications of person and number. They are the Infinitive Mode and the Participial Mode.

174. An Infinitive Form of a verb is one which expresses the act, state, etc., without the modifications of person and number, and in modern English is usually preceded by the sign **to**: as, We wish *to go; To have* gone home then would have been a great mistake; There lay the world, waiting *to be discovered;* He believed his plans *to have been discovered.*

175. The Infinitive Mode of a verb is the aggregate of its infinitive forms.

176. A Participial Mode of a verb is one which expresses the act, state, etc., without the modifications of person and number, and does not have the sign **to:** as, *Whipping* children is barbarous; *Having lost* my situation, I was soon

reduced to want; I do not enjoy *being censured* for another's faults; *Having been warned* in time, he escaped.

(For the full discussion of Infinitives and Participles, see Chapter XV.)

Tense.

177. Tense is the modification of verbs to indicate time.

178. A Tense of a verb is the aggregate of its forms denoting the same time.

179. Verbs have two classes of tenses, the *Primary* and the *Secondary*, called also the *Absolute* and the *Relative*.

180. The Primary Tenses are those which express the act, state, etc., without implying completion or termination. They are the *Present*, the *Past*, and the *Future*.

181. The Secondary Tenses are those which imply the completion or termination of the act, state, etc. They are the *Present Perfect*, the *Past Perfect*, and the *Future Perfect*.

The tenses will now be discussed in connection with the various modes.

Tenses of the Indicative Mode.

182. The Indicative Mode has all the six tenses.

183. The Present Indicative may express—

1. A fact affirmed or assumed for the present only; as, The wind *blows;* The door *is* open.

2. Something true at all times; as, Man *is* mortal; Honor and shame from no condition *rise;* The earth *rotates* on its axis.

3. Something constant, regular, or uniform, or continuing at the present time; as, The wind *is blowing;* John *reads* well; My father *keeps* store; I *don't believe* in ghosts; Supper *is being prepared*.

4. A past fact, when used in vivid narration; as, "Behold there

cometh one of the rulers of the synagogue, Jairus by name · and when he saw him, he fell down at his feet."

Rem.—This is sometimes called the "Historical Present."

5. Something to take place or exist in the future; as, We *dine* with our friends to-morrow; Duncan *comes* here to-night; He *goes* from here to Chicago, where he *remains* a week; I *am going* to write.

Rem.—For discussions of such expressions as, How *are* we to accomplish this? When *are* we to start? etc., see Article

184. The Past Indicative may express—

1. A past act or state; as, The tree *fell* with a crash; The book *lay* on the table; The night *was* dark.

2. Something connected hypothetically or conditionally with the present or the future; as, If I *had* a horse, I could ride; If I *saw* a friend in danger, I would try to rescue him.

Rem.—This is the use of the indicative mode in a subjunctive sense. Many authors, looking to the thought instead of the form, call the verb, when so used, in the subjunctive mode.

3. A past habit or custom or some thing continuing at some past time; as, "They *wore* hats perking up like spears or shafts of temples"; "For a second offense his ear *was slit*, or *bored* through with a hot iron." They *were trying* to bore through the mountain; I *was studying* my lesson.

"The very nature of this tense implies limitation as compared with the present. It may indicate various degrees of extent of time. 'In the geological ages, the air *had* more carbon,' may apply to a period of millions of years; it is a law of nature applicable to a period of great duration, but now passed. Or it may denote a single act of the least possible extent of time: 'the lightning *flashed*,' 'the tree *was shivered*.' The tense does not indicate how far back in the past the event took place."—BAIN.

185. The Future Indicative may express—

1. Something to take place, or be, in the future; as, I *shall go;* He

will stay at home; You *will be pleased;* They *will be* present; He *will be studying* grammar next year.

2. Something regular, constant, or uniform; as, Men known to speak the truth *will be believed* even if what they say is not understood; When a beaver is placed in a room, it *will attempt* to construct a dam of such movable articles as it finds.

186. The Present Pefect Indicative may express—

1. Something just completed or terminated; as, I *have written* the letter; The letter *has been sent;* I *have eaten* my dinner.

2. Something complete but not necessarily terminated; as, It *has rained* all day; I *have been reading* an hour.

3. Something which has continued or been done in the past; as, He *has been* dead five years; I *have resided* here all my life; He *has* frequently *been advised* to change his mode of living.

4. Something to be done; as, I will start as soon as all arrangements *have been made.*

187. The Past Perfect Indicative may express—

1. Something completed before some past time; as, I *had informed* him; The money *had been paid;* I *had been walking* in the field.

2. Something which has continued to some past time; as, We *had lived* in Chicago two years.

3. Something connected hypothetically with the past; as, If he *had* not *returned* the book soon, I should have sent for it; If you *had explained* the matter, nothing would have been done.

Rem. 1.—This use of the past perfect indicative is subjunctive in thought, and many authors teach that the verbs when so used are in the subjunctive mode. This ignores the true nature of mode as a *form* of the verb.

Rem. 2.—The past perfect indicative may be used for the past perfect potential; as, "One thrust *had laid* De Wilton in the dust."

188. The Future Perfect Indicative may express—

1. Something which will be completed or terminated at or before

some future time ; as, The train *will have started* by that time ; The class *will have* finished the subject before you will have made a beginning.

2. Something complete but not necessarily terminated ; as, We *shall have lived* here ten years ; The monument *will have been standing* five years.

Tenses of the Subjunctive Mode.

189. The Subjunctive Mode of the verb **be** has three tenses, the *Present*, the *Present Perfect*, and the *Past*.

In the case of other verbs, those which do not have the passive voice have only the present tense in the subjunctive mode. In the passive voice, the mode is shown by the auxiliary verb **be**, and the number of tenses in the subjunctive mode is therefore three. (See first table of Conjugations.)

Rem.—According to most writers the subjunctive mode has the three tenses, *Present*, *Past*, and *Past Perfect* ; but there seems to be no foundation for the doctrine that any verb in English has a past perfect subjunctive form. Compare the following forms :

Past Perfect Indicative.		Past Perfect Subjunctive (?)	
SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
I had been,	We had been,	*If* I had been,	*If* we had been,
You had been,	You had been,	*If* you had been,	*If* you had been,
He had been.	They had been.	*If* he had been.	*If* they had been.

The conjunction *if* is not a part of the verb, and does not imply anything concerning the mode of the verb. *If*, *though*, *lest*, and *unless* are more frequently used to introduce the conditional indicative, than the subjunctive mode.

(See Article 169, Rem. 2.)

190. The Present Subjunctive may express—

1. Something relating to the present time ; as, If he *see* me, [*i. e. now*], he does not recognize me.

2. Something relating to future time; as, If he *see* me [*at some future time*], he will recognize me.

191. The Past Subjunctive may express—

1. Something relating to past time; as, If I *were deceived* [*at some past time*], I have never found it out.

2. Something relating to present time; as, I wish I *were* at home [*now.*]

3. Something relating to future time; as, If the money *were paid* to-morrow, he would be satisfied.

192. In form the Present Perfect Subjunctive differs from the present perfect indicative only in the third person, singular number. It may express any of the different shades of meaning expressed by the present perfect indicative, but implies doubt, disbelief, or concession; as,

INDICATIVE, He *has studied* his lesson.

SUBJUNCTIVE, { If he *have studied* his lesson, } he does not recite
{ Though he *have studied* his lesson, } well.

Tenses of the Potential Mode.

193. The Potential Mode has four tenses, the Present, the Past, the Present Perfect, and the Past Perfect.

194. The Present Potential may express—

1. Something relating to the present time; as, It *may be* true, but I do not believe it; I *can* just *see* the top of the house; You *must be* cold.

2. Something relating to the future; as, I *may see* you at Chicago; I *can pay* you next week, but not to-day; You *must come* to see me.

195. The Past Potential may express—

1. Something relating to present time; as, I *would go* now; If he has saved his money, he *should have* fully one hundred dollars.

2. Something relating to past time; as, His friends objected, but he *would go;* He tried, but *could* not *return.*

3. Something relating to future time ; as, If he *should come,* I will inform you; By starting next week, you *could arrive* in time.

196. The Present Perfect Potential expresses—

1. Something completed before the present time; as. He *may have lost* his way; *May* we *have been mistaken?*

2. Something related to the future; as, Before you reach the house, he *may have gone.*

197. The Past Perfect Potential expresses—

1. Something relating to past time; as, I *might have gone* long ago; This tree *should have been spared.*

2. Something relating to the present or the future; as, Had we started sooner, we *might have been* at home now; Had you invited me, I *might have gone* with your party to-morrow.

Tenses of the Imperative Mode.

198. The Imperative Mode has two tenses, the Present and the Present Perfect.

199. The Present Imperative may express—

1. Something relating to present time; as, *Hand* me that book; *Look* at this picture.

2. Something relating to both the present and the future; as, *Stand* where you are, until directed to proceed; "Peace there. *Hear* the noble Antony."

3. Something relating entirely to the future; as, After you have delivered your message, *come* back to me; When you have read the letter, *burn* it.

200. The Present Perfect Imperative may express something relating to the present, or to both the present and the future; as, *Have done* with trifling; *Have made* an end of doubt before it makes an end of thee.

Tenses of the Not-Finite Modes.

201. The Infinitive Mode has two tense forms, the Present and the Present Perfect (commonly called the "Perfect").

Examples.

	ACTIVE.	PASSIVE.
PRESENT,	*To write.*	*To be written.*
PRESENT PERFECT,	*To have written.*	*To have been written.*

202. The Participial Mode has three tense forms, the Present, the Past, and the Present Perfect.

Examples.

	ACTIVE.	PASSIVE.
PRESENT,	*Writing.*	*Being written.*
PAST,	*Written.*	*Been written.**
PRESENT PERFECT,	*Having written.*	*Having been written.*

(*For full discussion of Infinitives and Participles, see Chapter XV.*)

* Never used "participially."

Number.

203. Number is the modification of words to denote unity or plurality. Verbs have two numbers, the Singular and the Plural.

204. A Singular Form of a verb is one which denotes unity.

205. The Singular Number of a verb is the aggregate of its singular forms.

Rem.—Similarly, the singular number of a voice, mode, or tense, is the aggregate of the singular forms in that voice, mode, or tense.

206. A Plural Form of a verb is one which denotes plurality.

207. The Plural Number of a verb is the aggregate of its plural forms.

Rem.—Similarly, the plural number of a voice, mode, or tense, is the aggregate of the plural forms of that voice, mode, or tense.

Person.

208. Person is the modification of words to distinguish the speaker, the one spoken to, or the one spoken of.

209. Verbs have three persons, the First, the Second, and the Third.

210. A form of the verb which shows that its subject is the speaker is in the **first person.**

211. A form of the verb which shows that its subject is the one spoken to is in the **second person.**

212. A form of the verb which shows that its subject is the one *spoken of* is in the **third person.**

IV. Conjugation.

213. To Conjugate a verb is to express all its forms in systematic order.

Rem. 1.—The word conjugation denotes either the act of conjugating, or the product of this act.

Rem. 2.—Most grammarians give tables of conjugations in which the forms of verbs are yoked with the pronouns which these forms may take as subjects. These tables are useful for class drill, but unless care is taken to prevent wrong impressions, young pupils are apt to conclude that the pronouns are essential parts of the conjugation.

214. To give a **Synopsis** of a verb is to express all its forms which are in one of the three persons and one of the two numbers.

Explanation.

The first table exhibits (1) The conjugation of the verb **be** as a principal verb; (2) The conjugation of the verb **be** as an auxiliary verb in the passive voice, or in both voices of the progressive style.

The second table exhibits the conjugation of the verb **move** through the active voice, ordinary style.

In the columns headed NUMBER and PERSON, the signs × and ○ are employed to show the number- and person-forms to be read or omitted. Thus, the first line in the second table is to be read: "Ordinary style, singular and plural number, first person, present, *move;* present perfect, *have moved;* past, *moved;* past perfect, *had moved;* future, *shall move;* future perfect, *shall have moved.*" The

second line under Potential Mode, is to be read: "Solemn style, singular and plural number,—first, second and third person,—present, *mayest*, *mayst*, or *canst move;* present perfect, *mayest*, *mayst*, or *canst have moved;* past, *mightest*, *mightst*, *couldst*, *wouldest*, *wouldst*, or *shouldst move;* past perfect, *mightest*, *mightst*, *couldst*, *wouldest*, *wouldst*, or *shouldst have moved*."

If deemed expedient, the pupil may be required to construct the tables of conjugations usually presented in the text-books—consulting the tables here given for the appropriate forms.

In oral recitation, the pupil may be permitted to use the appropriate pronouns as subjects of the various verb-forms; but great care should be exercised to secure sharp discrimination between the forms of the subject and those of the verb. Not unfrequently, in the mind of the pupil, I *had been*, YOU *had been*, HE *had been*, are different forms of the *verb!* If the constructed tables are written, it will be advisable to omit the subjects.

STYLE.	NUMBER.		PERSON.				
	Sing.	*Plu.*	*1st.*	*2d.*	*3d.*	*Present.*	*Present Perfect.*
Ordinary	x	o	x	o	o	am ——*	have been ——*
"	o	x	x	o	o	are ——	" " ——
"	x	x	o	x	o	" ——	" " ——
"	x	o	o	o	x	is ——	has been ——
"	o	x	o	o	x	are ——	have been ——
Solemn..	x	o	o	x	o	art ——	hast been ——
"	x	o	o	o	x		hath been ——
Emphatic	x	x	x	o	o		
"	x	x	o	x	x		
Emph. Solemn	x	x	o	x	o		
							SUBJUNCTIVE
Ordinary	x	x	x	x	x	be ——	have been ——
Solemn..	x	o	o	x	o		
							POTENTIAL
Ordinary	x	x	x	x	x	may / can / must } be ——	may / can / must } have been——
Solemn	x	x	x	x	x	mayest,or / mayst / canst } be—	mayest,or / mayst / canst } have been ——
							IMPERATIVE
Ordinary	x	x	x	x	x	be ——	have been ——
Emphatic	x	x	x	x	x	Do [*subject*] be ——	Do [*subject*] have been ——
							INFINITIVE
Ordinary	Number and person wanting					to be ——	to have been ——
							PARTICIPIAL
"	"	"	"	"		being ——	having been ——

MODE.

TENSE.

Past.	*Past Perfect.*	*Future.*	*Future Perfect.*
was ——*	had been ——*	shall be ——*	shall have been ——*
were ——	" " ——	" " ——	" " " ——
" ——	" " ——	will be ——	will have been ——
was ——	" " ——	" " ——	" " " ——
were ——	" " ——	" " ——	" " " ——
wast ——	hadst been ——	wilt be ——	wilt have been ——
		will be ——	will have been ——
		shall be ——	shall have been ——
		shalt be ——	shalt have been ——

MODE.

were ——

wert ——

MODE.

might, could, would, should } be —— | might, could, would, should } have been——

mightest,or, mightst, couldst, wouldest,or, wouldst, shouldst } be — | mightest,or, mightst, couldst, wouldest, or, wouldst, shouldst } have been ——

MODE.

MODE.

MODE.
been——

* 1. If the past active participle of any other verb be written in the place of the dashes, the resulting forms will be those of the *passive voice* of such verb.

2. The present active participle of any verb written in the place of the dashes, will give the conjugated forms of such verb, in the *active voice*, *progressive* style.

3. By substituting the present passive participle for the present active participle, the conjugated forms of the *passive voice*, *progressive style*, will be obtained.

ACTIVE

INDICATIVE

STYLE.*	NUMBER.		PERSON.				
	Sing.	*Plu.*	*1st.*	*2d.*	*3d.*	*Present.*	*Present Perfect.*
Ordinary	x	x	x	o	o	move	have moved
"	x	x	o	x	o	"	" "
"	x	o	o	o	x	moves	has moved
"	o	x	o	o	x	move	have moved
Solemn.....	x	o	o	x	o	movest	hast moved
"	x	o	o	o	x	moveth	hath moved
Emphatic.....	x	x	x	x	o	do move	
"	x	o	o	o	x	does move	
"	o	x	o	o	x	do move	
Emph. Solemn	x	o	o	x	o	dost move	
" "	x	o	o	o	x	doth move	
							SUBJUNCTIVE
Ordinary	x	x	x	x	o	move	have moved
Emphatic	x	x	x	x	x	do move	
							POTENTIAL
Ordinary	x	x	x	x	x	may / can / must } move	may / can / must } have moved
Solemn.....	x	x	x	x	x	mayest, or / mayst / canst } move	mayest, or / mayst / canst } have moved
							IMPERATIVE
Ordinary	x	x	x	x	x	move	have moved
Emphatic.....	x	x	x	x	x	Do [*subject*] move	Do [*subject*] have move
							INFINITIVE
Ordinary	Number and person wanting					to move	to have moved
							PARTICIPIAL
"	"	"	"	"		moving	having moved

VOICE.*

MODE.

TENSE.

Past.	*Past Perfect.*	*Future.*	*Future Perfect.*
moved	had moved	shall move	shall have moved
"	" "	will move	will have moved
"	" "	" "	" " "
"	" "	" "	" " "
movedst	hadst moved	wilt move	wilt have moved
did move			
" "			
" "			
didst move		shalt move	shalt have moved
		" "	" " "
MODE.			
MODE.			
might, could, would, should } move	might, could, would, should } have moved		
mightest, or mightst, couldst, wouldest, or wouldst, shouldst } move	mightest, or mightst, couldst, wouldest, or wouldst, shouldst } have moved		
MODE.			
MODE.			
MODE. moved			

* 1. Directions for forming the Passive Voice and the Progressive Style are given in the three notes found on the last page containing the conjugation of the irregular verb *be*.

2. Let this table be fully mastered; then study the conjugation of the verb *be;* then require the pupil to prepare tables showing the Passive Voice and the Progressive Style of the verb *move*.

LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS.

(The Verbs marked *r* are also regular. The forms marked with the asterisk (*) are seldom used, being obsolescent or newly introduced. The principal parts of a Verb are the Present Tense, the Past Tense, the Present Participle, and the Past Participle. In the following list, the Present Participles are omitted, as they may readily be supplied by the pupil.)

CLASS I.—LAST TWO FORMS UNLIKE.

Present.	*Past.*	*Past Participle.*
Arise,	arose,	arisen.
Awake,	awoke, *r.*,	awaked, awoke.*
Be, *or* am,	was,	been.
Bear (*bring forth*),	bore, bare,*	born.
Bear (*carry*),	bore, bare,*	borne.
Beat,	beat,	beaten, beat.
Become,	became,	become.
Befall,	befell,	befallen.
Beget,	begot, begat,*	begotten, begot.*
Begin,	began, begun,*	begun.
Bid,	bid, bade,	bid, bidden.
Bite,	bit,	bitten, bit.
Blow,	blew, *r.*,*	blown, *r.**
Break,	broke, brake,*	broken, broke.*
Chide,	chid,	chidden, chid.
Choose,	chose,	chosen.
Cleave (*adhere*),	cleaved, clave,*	cleaved.
Cleave (*split*),	cleft, clove, clave,	cleft, cloven.
Come,	came,	come.
Crow,	crowed, crew,	crowed.
Dare (*venture*),	dared, durst,	dared.
(Dare—*challenge*	dared,	dared.)
Dive,	dived, dove,*	dived.
Do (principal verb),	did,	done.
Draw,	drew,	drawn.
Drink,	drank,	drunk, drank.*
Drive,	drove,	driven.
Eat,	ate, ĕat,	eaten, ĕat.*
Engrave,	engraved,	engraven, *r*
Fall,	fell,	fallen.
Fly,	flew,	flown.
Forbear,	forbore,	forborne.
Forget,	forgot,	forgotten, forgot.
Forsake,	forsook,	forsaken.
Freeze,	froze, *r.*,	frozen, *r.*
Freight,	freighted,	freighted, fraught.
Get,	got,	got, gotten.
Give,	gave,	given.
Go,	went,	gone.
Grave,	graved,	graven, *r.*
Grow,	grew.	grown.
Heave,	heaved, hove,	heaved, hoven.*
Hew,	hewed,	hewn, *r.*
Hide,	hid,	hidden, hid.
Hold,	held,	held, holden.*
Know,	knew,	known.
Lade (*load*),	laded,	laden, *r.*
Lean,	leaned, lĕant,	leaned, lĕant.
Leap,	leaped, lĕapt,*	leaped, lĕapt.*
Lie (*repose*),	lay,	lain.
(Lie—*speak falsely.*	lied,	lied.)
Mow,	mowed,	mown, *r.*
Melt,	melted,	molten, *r.*
Prove,	proved,	proved, proven.*

Present.	*Past.*	*Past Participle.*
Rend,	rent,	rent, rended.*
Ride,	rode,	rode, ridden.
Ring,	rang, rung,	rung.
Rise,	rose,	risen.
Rive,	rived,	riven, *r.**
Run,	ran, run,*	run.
Saw,	sawed,	sawn, *r.*
See,	saw,	seen.
Seethe,	seethed, sod,	seethed, sodden.
Shake,	shook,	shaken.
Shape,	shaped,	shaped, shapen.*
Shave,	shaved,	shaved, shaven.
Shear,	sheared, shore,*	shorn, *r.*
Show,	showed,	shown, *r.*
Shrink,	shrunk. shrank,	shrunk, shrunken.*
Slay,	slew,	slain.
Slide,	slid, *r.*,	slidden, slid, *r.*
Smite,	smote,	smitten, smit.
Sing,	sung, sang,	sung.
Sink,	sunk, sank,	sunk.
Sow (*scatter*),	sowed,	sown, *r.*
Speak,	spoke, spake,*	spoken.
Spit,	spit, spat,*	spit, spitten.*
Spring,	sprung, sprang,	sprung.
Steal,	stole,	stolen.
Stride,	strode, strid,	stridden, strid.
Strike,	struck,	struck, stricken.
Strive,	strove, *r.*,*	striven, *r.**
Strow,	strowed,	strown, *r.*
Strew,	strewed,	strown, strewn.
Swear,	swore, sware,	sworn.
Swell,	swelled,	swollen, *r.*
Swim,	swum, swam,	swum.
Take,	took,	taken.
Tear,	tore,	torn.
Thrive,	thrived, throve,	thrived, thriven.
Throw,	threw, *r.*,*	thrown, *r.**
Tread,	trod, trode,*	trodden, trod.
Wax,	waxed,	waxed, waxen.
Wear,	wore,	worn.
Weave,	wove, *r.*,*	woven, *r.**
Write,	wrote, writ,*	written.

CLASS II.—TWO OR THREE FORMS ALIKE.

Present.	*Past.*	*Past Part.*
Abide,	abode, *r.*,*	abode, *r.**
Behold,	beheld,	beheld.
Belay,	belaid, *r.*,	belaid, *r.*
Bend,	bent, *r.*,	bent, *r.*
Bereave,	bereft, *r.*,	bereft, *r.*
Beseech,	besought,	besought.
Beset,	beset,	beset.
Bestead,*	bestead,*	bestead.*
Bet,	bet, *r.*,	bet, *r*,
Betide,	betided, betid,*	betided, betid,*
Bide,	bode, *r.*,	bode, *r.*
Bind,	bound,	bound.
Bleed,	bled,	bled.
Blend,	blended, blent.*	blended. blent.*
Bless,	blessed, blest,	blessed, blest.
Breed,	bred,	bred.
Bring,	brought,	brought.
Build,	built, *r.*,	built, *r.*
Burn,	burned, burnt,	burned. burnt.
Burst,	burst, *r.*,*	burst, *r.**
Buy,	bought,	bought.
Cast,	cast,	cast.
Catch,	caught, *r.*,*	caught, *r.**
Climb,	clomb, *r.*,*	clomb, *r.**
Cling,	clung,	clung.
Clothe,	clothed, clad,	clothed, clad.
Cost,	cost,	cost.

Present.	*Past.*	*Past Part.*
Creep,	crept,	crept.
Curse,	curst,	curst.
Cut,	cut,	cut.
Deal,	dealt, *r.*,*	dealt, *r.**
Dig,	dug, *r.*,	dug, *r.*
Dream,	dreamed, drĕamt,	dreamed, drĕamt.
Dress,	dressed, drest,*	dressed, drest.*
Dwell,	dwelt, *r.*,	dwelt, *r.*
Feed,	fed,	fed.
Feel,	felt,	felt.
Fight,	fought,	fought.
Find,	found,	found.
Flee,	fled,	fled.
Fling,	flung,	flung.
Geld,	gelt, *r.*,	gelt, *r.*
Gild,	gilded, gilt,	gilded. gilt.
Gird,	girt, *r.*,	girt, *r.*
Grind,	ground,	ground.
Hang,	hung, *r.*,	hung, *r.*[a]
Have (principal verb),	had,	had.
Hear,	heard,	heard.
Heat,	heat, *r.*,	heat, *r.*
Hit,	hit,	hit.
Hurt,	hurt,	hurt.
Keep,	kept,	kept.
Kneel,	knelt, kneeled,	knelt, kneeled.
Knit,	knit, *r.*,	knit, *r.*
Lay,	laid, *r.*,	laid, *r.*
Lead,	led,	led.
Learn,	learned, learnt,	learned, learnt.
Leave,	left,	left.
Lend,	lent,	lent.
Let,	let,	let.
Light,	lighted, lit,	lighted, lit.
Lose,	lost,	lost.
Make,	made,	made.
Mean,	mĕant,	mĕant.
Meet,	met,	met.
Mulct,	mulct, *r.*,	mulct, *r.*
Pass,	passed, past,*	passed, past.*[b]
Pay,	paid,	paid.
Pen (*fence in*),	penned, pent,	penned, pent.
(Pen—*write*,	penned,	penned.)

Present.	*Past.*	*Past Part.*
Plead,	pleaded, plĕad, pled,	pleaded, plĕad, pled.
Put,	put,	put.
Quit,	quit, *r.*, rapped,	quit, *r.*, rapped.
Rap,	rapt,	rapt.[c]
Rĕad,	rĕad,	rĕad.
Reave,	reft, *r.*,*	reft, *r.**
Rid,	rid,	rid.
Roast,	roast, *r.*,	roast, *r.*
Say,	said,	said.
Seek,	sought,	sought.
Sell,	sold,	sold.
Send,	sent,	sent.
Set,	set,	set.
Shed,	shed,	shed.
Shine,	shone, *r.*,*	shone, *r.**
Shoe,	shod,	shod.
Shoot,	shot,	shot.
Shred,	shred,	shred.
Shut,	shut,	shut.
Sit,	sat,	sat.
Sleep,	slept,	slept.
Sling,	slung,	slung.
Slink,	slunk,	slunk.
Slit,	slit, *r.*,	slit, *r.*
Smell,	smelt, *r.*,	smelt, *r.*
Speed,	sped, *r.*,*	sped, *r.**
Spell,	spelled, spelt,	spelled. spelt.
Spend,	spent,	spent.
Spill,	spilt, *r.*,	spilt, *r.*
Spin,	spun,	spun.
Split,	split, *r.*,*	split. *r.**
Spoil,	spoiled, spoilt,*	spoiled, spoilt.*
Spread,	spread,	spread.
Stay,	staid, *r.*,	staid, *r.*[d]
String,	strung, *r.*,*	strung, *r.*
Stave,	stove, *r.*,	stove, *r.*
Stand,	stood,	stood.
Stick,	stuck,	stuck.
Sting,	stung,	stung.
Stink,	stunk, stank,*	stunk.
Sweat,	swĕat, *r.*, swet,	swĕat, *r.* swet.
Sweep,	swept,	swept.
Swing,	swung,	swung.
Teach,	taught,	taught.
Tell,	told,	told.

Present.	*Past.*	*Past Part.*	*Present.*	*Past.*	*Past Part.*
Think,	thought,	thought.	Beware,	———	———
Thrust,	thrust,	thrust.	Can,	could,	———
Wake,	woke, *r.*,	woke, *r.*	Do (auxil'y),	did,	———
Wed,	wedded,	wedded,	Have (auxil'y),	had,	———
	wed,*	wed.*	May,	might,	———
Weep,	wept,	wept.	Must,	must,	———
Wet,	wet, *r.*,	wet, *r.*	Ought,	ought,	———
Whet,	whet,	whit.	———	quoth,	———
Win,	won,	won.	Shall,	should,	———
Wind,	wound, *r.*,*	wound, *r.**	Will (auxil'y),	would,	———
Wont,	wont, *r.*,	wont, *r.*	(Will—*wish*, *bequeath*,	willed,	willed.)
Work,	worked,	worked,			
	wrought,	wrought.	Wit,		
Wreathe,	wreathed,	wreathen, *r*	Wot,*	wot.*	
Wring,	wrung, *r.*,*	wrung, *r.**	Wis,*	wist,*	
			Weet,*	wote,*	

(*a.*) Hanged, hanged, hanged; *to suspend by the neck with intent to kill:* but the distinction is not always observed. (*b.*) *Past*, adjective or noun. (*c.*) Rap, rapt, rapt; *to seize with rapture.* (*d.*) Stay, stayed, stayed; *to cause to stop.*

CHAPTER VI.

ADVERBS.

I. Definition.

ADVERB: Latin, *ad*, to — verb (from *verbum*, word).

215. An Adverb is a word used principally to modify a Verb, an Adjective, or another Adverb.

Words should be classified as parts of speech according to their meaning. The foregoing definition—the one usually given, except that I have inserted the word "*principally*"—has been adopted because I hesitate to make any sweeping change in definitions which have grown familiar to teachers and students. It should not be forgotten, however, that it is its *meaning* which causes the chief use of an adverb to be that of modifying a verb, adjective, or another adverb.

II. Classification.

216. As to meaning, adverbs have the following classes:—*Place*, *Time*, *Degree*, *Manner*, *Belief and Disbelief*, and *Illation*.

Rem.—Illation signifies the act of inferring from premises; drawing a conclusion; deriving a truth from a truth or truths already known. The other terms used to designate the different classes of adverbs do not need defining.

217. Adverbs of Place have the sub-classes—

1. Place in which; as, *here, there, where, etc.*
2. Place to which; as, *hither, thither, whither, homeward, etc.*
3. Place from which; as, *hence, whence, thence, out, etc.*
4. Place through which; as, *through, throughout, etc.*

218. Adverbs of Time have the sub-classes—

1. Time absolute; as, *ever, never, constantly, etc.*
2. Time relative; as, *early, meanwhile, seasonably, etc.*
3. Time repeated; as, *daily, often, occasionally, etc.*
4. Time present; as, *now, instantly, forthwith, etc.*
5. Time past; as, *already, lately, hitherto, etc.*
6. Time future; as, *soon, henceforth, presently, etc.*

219. Adverbs of Degree have the sub-classes—

1. Equality, or sufficiency; as, *enough, perfectly, sufficiently, etc.*
2. Deficiency, or abatement; as, *almost, nearly, partly, etc.*
3. Excess, or abundance; as, *better, exceedingly, very, etc.*
4. Exclusion, or emphasis; as, *especially, merely, only, etc.*

220. Adverbs of Manner have the sub-classes—

1. Quality; as, *well, wisely, silently, etc.*
2. Method; as, *so, thus, somehow, etc.*

221. Adverbs of Belief and **Disbelief** have the sub-classes—

1. Certainty; as, *certainly, surely, verily, etc.*
2. Doubt; as, *doubtfully, hardly, scarcely, etc.*
3. Probability; as, *likely, presumably, probably, etc.*
4. Possibility; as, *haply, perhaps, possibly, etc.*
5. Negation; as, *no, not, no-wise, etc.*
6. Affirmation; as, *yea, yes, amen, etc.*

222. Adverbs of Illation have the sub-classes—

1. Cause;
2. Reason;
3. Purpose;
4. Condition;

} as, *then, hence, therefore, wherefore, etc.* (Holbrook.)

Rem. 1.—The foregoing classes are not mutually exclusive; and owing to the different meanings which the same word may have, it is impossible to assign very many adverbs to any class exclusively. Thus, *hardly, certainly* and *simply* may be used as adverbs of *manner* as well as *degree; hence* may be an adverb of *illation* or *place; so* may be either an adverb of *manner, degree,* or *illation, etc.*

Rem. 2.—Grammarians differ very much in regard to the classifications of adverbs. The Century Dictionary gives the following:

"1. Adverbs of place or motion; as, *here, there, up, out, etc.*
2. Of time and succession; as, *now, then, often, ever, etc.*
3. Of manner and quality; as, *so, thus, well, truly, faithfully, etc.*
4. Of measure and degree; as, *much, more, very, enough, etc.*
5. Of modality; as, *surely, not, perhaps, therefore, etc.*"

Definition.—Adverbs of modality, or modal adverbs, are those that indicate the manner in which the thought is conceived by the speaker. They are used to intensify or weaken the effect of the mode of a verb, or to form with a verb in one mode a substitute for that verb in some other mode. Thus, (1) You can *certainly* go=You *can* go; (2) You can *not* go (Here, the power denoted by the potential mode is weakened or destroyed by *not*); (3) *Perhaps* you *will* go=You *may* go.

Directions.—1. Classify the following adverbs, as to meaning and structure. (See Article 233.) 2. Compare those which admit of comparison, and state which method is followed. 3. In the case of those which are derived from other parts of speech, name the primitives.

off	fro	ere	yet	too
often	even	fain	still	soon
well	widely	forth	very	like
almost	along	also	nearly	the
quite	afar	utterly	as—as	only
greatly	ahead	presently	so—as	forsooth
noways	betimes	avowedly	annually	seldom
homeward	forever	seriously	manfully	howbeit
invitingly	mayhap	everywhere	thrice	otherwise
rather	indeed	solemnly	unexpectedly	tiptoe
eftsoons	anon	straightway	abaft	apropos
double-quick	two-blocks	vis-a-vis	to-wit	peradventure

223. As to function, adverbs have the following classes: *Modifying* (*i. e.*, having the modifying function only), *Conjunctive*, and *Interrogative*.

Rem.—As will be shown in Chapter XIII, adverbs have other functions than those recognized in this classification; but the three classes mentioned are all that are usually given. Some authors do not recognize the interrogative adverb as a separate class. (See Holbrook's "Complete Grammar," Whitney's "Essentials of English Grammar," Reed & Kellogg's "Higher Lessons in English." Sill's "Practical Lessons in English.")

224. Conjunctive Adverbs are those which in addition to their functions as adverbs also perform the office of conjunctions.

225. The Conjunctive Adverbs are *as*, *how*, *when*, *whence*, *where*, *while*, *whither*, and *why;* and their compounds, *however*, *howsoever*, *whenas*, *whenever*, *whenso*, *whensoever*, *whence-ever*, *whenceforth*, *whencesoever*, *whereabout*, *whereabouts*, *whereagainst*, *whereas*, *whereat*, *whereby*, *wherever*, *wherefore*, *wherefrom*, *wherehence*, *wherein*, *wherein-*

soever, whereinto, whereamid, whereof, whereon, whereout, whereover, whereso, wheresoever, wherethrough, whereto, whereunder, whereupon, wherewith, wherewithal, whiles, whileas, whilst, whither-out, whithersoever, whitherward.

226. As conjunctions *when, where, whence, wherefore,* and *while,* may be either co-ordinative or subordinative; as, *whether, whither,* and *why* are subordinative.

227. Examples showing the co-ordinative use of conjunctive adverbs :

1. **Copulative.**—We went to Cincinnati, *where* we remained a week.
2. **Adversative.**—We shall go to Chicago, *where,* however, we cannot remain long.

In the first example, *where* equals *and there ;* in the last, *where* equals *but there.* In the following sentences *when* and *while* are mere substitutes for *but :*—(1) You said you had studied your lesson, *when* you had not looked at it ; (2) John is very industrious, *while* Henry is idle and profligate.

228. Examples of the subordinative use of conjunctive adverbs:—(1) *When* he returns, I will notify you of the fact; (2) The tree lies *where* it fell ; (3) As soon *as* he returns, I will inform you; (4) The reason *why* the man succeeds is apparent.

229. Conjunctive Adverbs always modify the verbs in their own sentences. When used as subordinative conjunctions, the sentences which they introduce modify some word in the principal sentence. Thus, in the sentence, 'This is the city where John Smith resides,' *where* modifies *resides,* and the sentence *where John resides,* modifies *city.*

Rem.—Many authors teach that a conjunctive adverb is equivalent to two phrases. Thus, in the sentence, "Come when you are ready," *when* is said to be equivalent to the phrases, *at the time,* and *at which.*

Of these phrases, it is said that *at the time* modifies *come*, and *at which* modifies *are*—the sentence, *at which you are ready*, being a modifier of *time*. The first phrase, however, can be supplied without substituting *at which* for *when*; thus, 'Come *at the time when* you are ready,' is a correct sentence. So, in the sentence, 'The tree lies where it fell,' we can insert after *lies* the phrase *in the place*, and retain *where*; as, "The tree lies *in the place where* it fell." In fact, when we wish to be definite as to time, place, reason, etc., we always do express the antecedent phrase. Thus, (1) Come *at the moment* when he arrives; (2) "Not a soldier discharged his farewell shot *o'er the grave* where our hero was buried"; (3) This is the *reason* why John returned.

The doctrine that a conjunctive adverb is equivalent to two phrases involves the absurdities, (1) That a word can be equal to itself and something more; and (2) That a word can modify itself. Were these astounding propositions true, language would indeed be "a mighty maze," and that, "without a plan."

230. Interrogative Adverbs are those which may make sentences interrogative.

231. The Interrogative Adverbs are, *when*, *whence*, *where*, *whether*, *whither*, and *why*; and the compounds *whereabout*, *whereabouts*, *whereat*, *whereby*, *wherefore*, *wherein*, *whereinto*, *whereof*, *whereon*, *whereto*, *whereunto*, *whereupon*, *wherewith*, *wherewithal whither-out*, *whitherward*.

Examples. (1) *When* did it happen? (2) *Whence* [ ] this pleasing hope? (3) *Where* has he gone? (4) "*Wherefore* hast thou rent thy clothes?" (5) *Whither* hast thou gone? (6) *Why* have you sold your farm?

232. Interrogative Adverbs, like Interrogative Pronouns, may be used in indirect discourse; as, (1) I know *when* it happened; (2) I know *whence* it comes; (3) I know *where* it has gone; (4) I know *why* you refuse; (5) I don't know *whether* he will come or not.

NOTE.—In modern use, *whether*, as an interrogative adverb, is always indirect; but was formerly used as a direct interrogative; as, "*Whether* is Herod, or that Youngling King?"

Rem.—Many authors erroneously treat indirect interrogative adverbs as conjunctive adverbs. Students who have learned to discriminate between relative pronouns and those which are indirect interrogatives, will have little difficulty in seeing that the italicized words in the foregoing examples are interrogatives.

233. As to structure, adverbs have the classes, *Simple*, *Complex*, and *Compound*.

Examples:

1. **Simple.**—*Now*, *so*, *quickly*, *incommensurably*.
2. **Complex.**—*More clearly*, *most assuredly*, *less obstinately*.
3. **Compound.**—*Helter-skelter*, *hurry-skurry*, *whence-ever*.

III. Modifications.

234. A few adverbs admit of comparison, the methods and principles being the same as those stated under the modifications of adjectives.

235. A very few adverbs have number; as, *once*, *twice*, *thrice*, *etc.*; *singly*, *doubly*, *triply*, *etc.*; *twofold*, *threefold*, *etc.*

Remarks.

1. **The** and **what** are adverbs in the following sentences:—

(1) "*The* faster he runs *the* slower he goes"; (2) "*What* with pride, projects, and knavery, poor Peter was growing distracted." (Consult the dictionary for *the* and *what*.)

(2) Many authors teach that the adverbs in such combinations as though———*yet*, if———*then*, since———*therefore*, are conjunctions. This doctrine will hardly satisfy the critical student. See Article 268.

(3) Some authors teach that the following combinations are "adverbial phrases"; and "may be parsed as a single word": *hand in hand, by and by, through and through, no more, for the most part, as usual, etc.*

"It is a mere shift to parse any expression as an adverbial phrase; sometimes, an artifice to conceal ignorance."—HOLBROOK.

4. **As.** 'I ran *as* fast *as* John did (run).' The first *as* is an adverb of degree, modifying *fast*, and is modified by the subordinate sentence, '*as John did (run).*' The second *as* is a conjunctive adverb, introducing the subordinate sentence, and modifying the verb *did* (*run*). In like manner dispose of *as* in the following expressions:—'He acted so *as* to gain our confidence'; 'The sea is *as* deep *as* the mountains are high.' In the sentence, 'He acted *so* badly that I was ashamed of him', *so* modifies *badly*, and is modified by the subordinate sentence, '*that I was ashamed of him.*'

5. The adverbs **yes, no,** etc., are by some authors called "Responsives." Some authors deny that these words are adverbs at all, classing them as a separate part of speech, or giving them a place among the interjections. It is true that they never modify other words but are themselves complete answers; but they are also equivalent to other adverbs which may be used absolutely. Thus, *aye, ay, yea,* and *yes,* are often equivalent to *indeed, truly, surely, verily, etc.*; *nay* and *no,* are equivalent to *not, not so, never, not at all, etc.* When *no* is used to modify adjectives or adverbs, it is not the same word as the responsive *no,* though agreeing with it in form, but is the reduced form of the adverb *none.* The adjective *no* is the reduced form of the adjective *none.* When *ay,* and *aye,* mean *ever, always, forever, continually, etc.,* they are different words from the responsive having the same form. So, the interjections *ay* and *aye* are probably mere variants of *ah, oh, O, etc.*

Directions.

Classify the adverbs in the following sentences, and give the different forms of those which can be compared.

1. Yet here I stand, but where are they? 2. How in the world came you there? 3. It is a period nowhere to be found. 4. She weeps not, but often and deeply she sighs. 5. I thence invoke thy aid. 6. Overhead the stately columns, majestic still in their ruin. 7. It is the hour when babes with angels speak. 8. He was not killed, but severely bruised and somewhat stunned. 9. He acted wisely, justly, slowly. 10. He walked not quite fast enough. 11. What he did, he did patiently, accurately, and thoroughly. 12. Surely, never again shall we behold so magnificent a spectacle. 13. Faintly flow, thou falling river, Like a dream that dies away.

CHAPTER VII.

PREPOSITIONS.

I. Definition.

PREPOSITION : Latin, *præ*, before — *ponere*, sit, place.

NOTE.—The name of this class of words merely indicates the position which the words usually have. They are usually placed before their objects.

237. A Preposition is a word used principally to show an adjective or an adverbial relation.

238. The Object of a proposition is the word, or combination of words, having the relation shown by the preposition. Nouns, pronouns, infinitives, participles, subordinate sentences, and occasionally adjectives, adverbs, and even prepositions and their objects, may be the objects of prepositions.

Rem. 1.—The objects of prepositions are frequently omitted. When this is done habitually. the preposition is often considered an adjective or an adverb; as, 'The sky *above*,' 'The rocks *below*,' 'He traveled *on*,' 'They hurried *by*.'

Rem. 2.—A preposition may have two or more objects; and a word may be the object of two or more prepositions; as, (1) I came WITH *John* and *James*. (2) We rode TO and FROM the *city*.

239. A word, or combination of words, which limits a noun or pronoun has an adjective relation—i. e. a relation in which an adjective is usually found—and this relation will be indicated in one of three ways:

1. By form ; as, 'The *man's* HAT.'
2. By position ; as, 'JOHN, our hired *man*.'
3. By a word ; as, 'The SON of this *man*.'

In each of the foregoing examples, the word *man* is used as an adjective relation, limiting *hat*, *John*, and *son*. In the last example, the relation of *man* to *son* is shown by *of*.

240. Again, a word, or combination of words, may limit a verb in some other way than as its subject or object—i. e. in an adverbial relation ; and a preposition may be used to show this relation ; as, (1) He SPOKE to *me;* (2) He bought the BOOK of *John* ; (3) The house STANDS between the *road* and the *river;* (4) He SAILED around the *world*.

241. A word, or combination of words, which modifies an adjective or an adverb, has an adverbial relation, which may be shown by a preposition ; as, (1) An old tree, DEAD at the *top*, stood by the wayside ; (2) The wind blows SUFFICIENTLY for my *purpose*.

242. **Preposition Omitted.**—Frequently the relation usually shown by a preposition is so obvious that no preposition is used to show it.

Examples.

1. Principal term a *Noun*.—(1) Three *times* FIVE are fifteen; (2) My DREAM last *night* will frighten you if I describe it ; (3) Your ACTIONS *yesterday* will bring trouble to your friends.

2. Principal term a *Verb*.—(1) He HAS GONE *home;* (2) He REMAINED an *hour*.

3. Principal term an *Adjective*.—(1) Your are an *hour* LATE ; (2) This field is a great *deal* BETTER than that one is.

4. Principal term an *Adverb*.—(1) You should have come an *hour* SOONER ; (2) He lives a *mile* AWAY.

Rem.—The italicized nouns in the foregoing sentences should not be parsed as the objects of prepositions understood, but as having the VIIIth construction—(b) and (c). Prepositions show relations, but do not create or cause them. In the sentence, 'John has gone home,' *home* has the same relation that it has in, 'John has gone to his home,' but in the second sentence *to* has been used to show the relation of *home* to *has gone*, and in the first sentence the relation is seen without the preposition to express it. It would be useless to supply *to* in the first sentence, since it could only serve to show a relation already clearly seen.

243. No Preposition to Use.—In some instances there are no prepositions in the language which exactly express the relation of a noun used as a modifier of a verb or adjective.

Examples.

(1) The fish WEIGHS a *pound;* (2) He WALKED a *mile;* (3) The tree MEASURES three *feet* through; (4) The hat is WORTH a *dollar*, etc.

In such cases, if we try to express the relation which the italicized nouns have, we must use several words; as, (1) The fish weighs [*to the weight of*] a pound; (2) He walked [*to the distance of*] a mile; (3) The tree measures [*to the extent of*] three feet through; (4) The hat is worth [*to the value of*] a dollar. These phrases within the brackets are by some authors inaccurately called "complex prepositions." *To the distance of*, is not a preposition, but consists of a preposition, an adjective, a noun, and another preposition.

II. Classification.

244. As to meaning, prepositions have the classes shown below. The phrases are not prepositions, but are used to aid in making clear the meaning of the preposition, and the relation to be shown when the preposition belongs to the class mentioned. It will be observed that a

preposition may belong to several different classes, owing to different shades of meaning which it may express. This classification has been mainly adapted from that given in Bain's Higher English Grammar.

1. Prepositions of Place, and the like.

(a) **Of rest,** *in, at, on, by, beneath, above, etc.*

Illustrations:—*in* the house, *in* the book, *in* slumber, *on* foot; *at* the door, *at* dinner, *at* war, *at* rest; *on* the table, *on* this principle; *by* the post, *by* heart, etc.

(b) **Of motion,** *to, from, toward, through, before, etc.*

Illustrations:—*to* town, *to* you, *to* dinner, *to* sleep; *from* the house, *from* the book, *from* the statement; *toward* the door, *toward* that result, *toward* that conclusion; *through* the field, *through* the book, *through* the sermon, etc.

2. Prepositions of Time; as, *at, till, since, after, for, etc.*

Illustrations:—*at* noon, *till* Monday, *since* Christmas, *after* dark, *for* an hour, etc.

3. Prepositions of Agency, and the like; as, *by, through, with, etc.*, when equivalent to, *by means of, by virtue of, by force of, by the help of, through the instrumentality of, etc.*

Illustrations:—(1) He came *by* the the last train; (2) He succeeded *through* treachery; (3) He drove the nail *with* a hammer.

4. Prepositions of Cause, Purpose, Motion, Reason, etc.; as, *as, for, from, out of, etc.*, when equivalent to, *on account of, for the sake of, in consideration of, in accordance with, with a view to, etc.*

Illustrations:—(1) He works *for* his daily bread; (2) He reads *for* information; (3) Many called *from* idle curiosity; (4) I do this *as* a pastime; (5) He returned the plunder *out of* fear; (6) He conferred the favor *out of* kindness.

5. Prepositions of Reference and the like; as, *on, about, of, as for, as to*, etc., when equivalent to, *with reference to, in regard to, on the subject of, etc.*

Illustrations:—(1) He spoke *on* the Wrongs of Ireland; (2) I sing *of* war; (3) He told me *about* your trouble.

6. Prepositions of Separation and Exclusion; as, *of, from, without, save, except, but, besides, etc.*, when equivalent to, *taken from, selected from, considered apart from, setting aside, leaving out, not including, with the exception of, etc.*

Illustrations:—(1) He came *without* arms; (2) They were all present *except* John; (3) He borrowed a dollar *from* his friend; (4) They took him *from* his family; (5) They outran all the boys *but* me.

Rem.—Some authors regard *but* as a conjunction in all cases where it is said by others to be a preposition. Thus, in the sentence, All have returned *but* John, it is said that there is an ellipsis after *but*, and that the words *has not returned* are understood after John. Those authors would, therefore, condemn the expression, "Whence all *but* him had fled," on the ground that *him*, being the subject of *had (not) fled*, should take the nominative case. In Sill's "Practical Lessons in English," pages 94–95, a long list of quotations is given in which the pronouns following *but* are put in the nominative. The weight of authority, however, including the *Century Dictionary*, is in favor of regarding the word as a preposition in such examples as the fifth.

7. Prepositions of Opposition, or Substitution; as, *against, athwart, for, instead of, etc.*, when equivalent to, *in opposition to, in defiance of, in spite of, across the path of, in the place of, as a substitute for, etc.*

Illustrations:—(1) This is an offense *against* the law; (2) He came *athwart* my plans; (3) An eye *for* an eye; (4) Fair words *instead of* deeds.

8. Prepositions of Apposition or Association; as, *as, of, with, etc.*, when equivalent to, *with the character of, known as, with the attribute of, with the name of, called, in the character of, in the company of, added to, increased by, and, etc.*

Illustrations:—(1) Shakspere *as* a dramatist has no equal; (2) The city *of* Chicago; (3) I am *with* my friends; (4) He mixed lime *with* sand.

9. Prepositions of Ownership, Origin, Substance, Kind, etc.; as, *of, to, from, etc.*, when equivalent to, *belonging to, descended from, made of, etc.*

Illustrations:—(1) The views *of* my neighbor; (2) The son *of* John Brown; (3) The field of the cloth *of* gold; (4) The laws *of* God; (5) A rod *of* iron; (6) The box *to* this wagon; (7) The sequel *to* that story.

245. As to structure, prepositions are *Simple, Complex,* or *Compound.*

Examples.

1. **Simple.**—*At, in, on, to, for, with, through, etc.*
2. **Complex.**—*Out of, as to, as for, instead of, over against, etc.*
3. **Compound.**—*Into, unto, upon, throughout, within, etc.*

Rem.—Many authors teach that the phrases, *in spite of, to the extent of, in the character of, etc.*, are complex prepositions. It is true that when a single word can be substituted for these phrases, that word is likely to be a preposition; but the phrases themselves certainly are not. It has been urged that the constructions of the words in the phrase, *in the character of*, are not sufficiently difficult to warrant taking the time necessary to parse each one by itself. If such is the case, it would be wise not to assign them as a parsing lesson; but until it is universally admitted that accuracy and propriety are to be studiously disregarded, in grammar, let us not resort to the slovenly method of "lumping" two prepositions, an article and a noun, on the principle that the more words we take at a time the sooner we shall have done with a sentence.

CHAPTER VIII.

CONJUNCTIONS.

I. Definition.

Conjunction : Latin, *con*, together—junction, union, joining.

Note.—The word conjunction is immediately derived from the Latin noun *conjunctio*, a joining, union, conjunction.

246. A Conjunction is a word used principally to connect words, phrases or sentences, or to introduce subordinate sentences.

II. Classification.

247. Conjunctions have the two general classes, *Coördinative* and *Subordinative*.

Rem. Most authors use the words *coördinate* and *subordinate* to designate the chief classes of conjunctions, but these words cannot with propriety be so employed. *Coördinate* means "of equal rank or order"; *subordinate* means in a lower, or secondary order or class. In the sentence, 'John and James recite well,' the words *John* and *James* are coördinate terms; *and* is not coördinate, but *coördinative—i.e.* it indicates the coördination, or equality in rank, of *John* and *James*.

Coördinative, or coördinating, are manifestly better adjectives than coördinate to apply to words that express or indicate the equality of other words or terms.

248. Co-ordinative Conjunctions are those which connect coördinate terms.

249. Coördinate terms are sentences of equal rank, or words, phrases, and subordinate sentences having the same construction.

250. Co-ordinative Conjunctions have the sub-classes, *Copulative*, and *Adversative*.

251. A Copulative Conjunction is one that indicates that the meaning of the following term is to be added to that of the preceding term; thus, (1) John *and James* recite well; (2) We went to town *and remained there a week;* (3) Spring comes *and the flowers bloom*.

252. The only pure copulative conjunction is *and*, but the following words sometimes appear to have the same force:

1. But, when it follows *not only;* as, '*Not only* England *but* all Europe is interested in this question': equivalent to 'England *and* all Europe are interested in this question.'

2. As well as is sometimes used as a substitute for *and* to give emphasis; as, 'John *as well as* James has been idle': equivalent to 'John *and* James have been idle.'

3. Also, likewise, then, etc., frequently appear to connect coordinate terms in addition to performing the office of adverbs; as, (1) The boy lost his hat; *also* his knife; (2) He entered the room, *then* took a seat near the fire.

Rem.—The conjunctive adverbs *where*, *when*, *whence*, *etc.*, and the relative pronouns *who* and *which*, may connect coördinate sentences in addition to performing their functions as adverbs and pronouns. Sufficient examples have been given under adverbs and pronouns.

253. Adversative Conjunctions are those which indi-

cate that the following term is in some kind of opposition to the preceding term.

254. The Adversative Conjunctions are *but*, *or*, and *nor*.

Rem.—It is hardly accurate to say that adversative conjunctions connect the terms. They rather serve to introduce terms opposed to something which precedes. Many authors consciously or unconsciously admit this fact by denominating these words "*Disjunctive Conjunctions.*"

255. But usually implies exception or surprise. It usually indicates that the following term is not, according to the usual condition or course of things, what is to be expected in connection with, or as a consequence of the preceding term; as, (1) He is industrious, *but* he does not prosper; (2) He studies, *but* does not learn; (3) We went to town, *but* did not remain.

256. When **but** follows **not,** it usually indicates that the following term is to be substituted for the preceding; as, (1) We strive *not* for empire, *but* for existence; (2) He did *not* speak, *but* he fought; (3) *Not* John *but* James was to blame.

When **but** follows **not only,** it usually implies that the following term is to be added to the preceding. (See Article 252, Remark 1.)

258. Or may imply that the following term is opposed in thought to the preceding term; as, You may go *or* stay.

259. Or may imply that the following term, though opposed in form to the preceding term, is logically in apposition with it; as, 'A triangle, *or* surface bounded by three sides, is the simplest polygon.'

260. Or may imply the exclusion of the following term; as, 'I must study diligently, *or* (i. e. *if I do not study diligently*) I shall not learn.

261. Nor is usually equivalent to *or* with a negative force, though it may be equivalent to *but* with a negative force; as 'They foresaw

the consequence, *nor* did they seek to avoid it': equivalent to, 'They foresaw the consequence, *but* they did *not* seek to avoid it.'

Rem. 1.—The adverbs *whereas*, *while*, *when*, *still*, *yet*, *nevertheless*, and *only*, are frequently used as substitutes for *but;* as, (1) The thought should be clearly expressed, *whereas*, (or *while*, *when*, *still*, *yet*, or *nevertheless*) you have but vaguely hinted at it. (2) Think what you please, *only* do not deceive yourself. This use of these adverbs should not be confused with the ordinary use of *whereas*, *while*, and *when* as conjunctive adverbs.

Rem. 2.—Many authors class the illative adverbs with the coördinative conjunctions.

262. Subordinative Conjunctions are those used to introduce subordinate sentences.

Rem.—Most authors define subordinative conjunctions as "those which join subordinate sentences to the terms that these sentences modify;" but it is doubtful that subordinative conjunctions ever connect terms, and it is certain that many do not.

263. Subordinative Conjunctions usually indicate the various relations or modes of dependence in which the sentences they introduce stand, and are classified accordingly as conjunctions of *Condition* or *Concession*, *Reason* or *Cause*, *End* or *Purpose*, and *Comparison*.

264. The conjunctions of **Condition** or **Concession** are *if*, *though*, *although*, *unless*, and *albeit*.

Illustrations:—(1) I will go *if* I can; (2) *Though* he slay me, yet will I trust him; (3) *Unless* I hear from you to the contrary, I shall expect you next week; (4) They invited me to be present, *albeit* I was not one of them.

Rem.—*Except* is sometimes employed as a substitute for *unless;* as, "*Except* ye repent, ye shall all likewise perish."

265. The conjunctions of **Reason** or **Cause** are *as, because, for, since, whereas, inasmuch as, forasmuch as,* and *for that.*

Illustrations:—(1) *As* we intended to go, we made suitable preparations for the journey; (2) I came *because* I wished to see you; (3) We ceased, *for* we were weary; (4) *Since* you request his pardon, it shall be granted. (5) *Whereas* you have requested this man's release, he shall be set at liberty; (6) Comes now the defendant, and demurs to the evidence, *for that* sufficient facts have not been proved to constitute a cause of action.

Rem.—When we say, 'He is industrious, and therefore he will prosper', the sentences are of equal rank; but we may make the sentence expressing the cause or reason subordinate, and say, 'He will prosper, *because* (or *since*) *he is industrious.*'

266. The conjunctions of **End** or **Purpose** are *that* and *lest.*

Rem.—*Lest* is usually equivalent to *that not.*

Illustrations:—(1) We study *that* we may learn; (2) They set a strong guard, *lest* any should escape.

267. The conjunction of **Comparison** is *than.*

Illustrations:—(1) John is taller *than* James [ ]; (2) "To the strongest and quickest mind it is far easier to learn *than* to invent [ ]."

Rem. 1.—*Than* is derived from the adverb *then,* and a trace of its adverbial force may still be seen.

"He is stronger than you," is, in full, 'he is stronger; *then* (*next in a lower degree*) *strong are* you."—BAIN.

Rem. 2.—By some authors *than* is thought to be a preposition, but the better view is that it is always a conjunction. In modern use it

always introduces the complement of words expressing comparison or diversity; as, (1) He can walk faster *than* I can [walk]; (2) His hat is better *than* my hat is; (3) "I would not have him in one jot or tittle other *than* he is"; (4) Had the results been else *than* this [ ], I should have been disappointed. (5) The work was not done otherwise *than* [ ] as you directed; (6) He walked home, rather *than* wait for the car.

Rem. 3.—In such expressions as '*than whom*,' '*than me*,' '*than them*,' *etc.*, there is either an ellipsis of some verb or preposition, or the objective case is blunderingly used for the nominative.

Examples.

1. He would rather accommodate you *than me*. In this sentence the word *accommodate* is implied before *me*, and there is no error in the case of *me*.

2. "Which when Beelzebub perceived *than whom*, Satan except, none higher sat," etc. In this sentence *whom* should be *who*, since the pronoun is the subject of *sat* understood.

268. Relative Pronouns and **Conjunctive Adverbs** are also used as subordinative conjunctions—*i. e.*, in addition to their functions as pronouns and adverbs, they introduce the sentences of which they are members. They are sometimes said to connect these sentences to some other word.

Rem. 1.—The only ground upon which a relative pronoun can be said to connect such sentences is that its antecedent is in one part of the complex sentence, and the pronoun itself forms a part of the subordinate sentence; thus, 'The man *who tills the soil* trusts in God.' In this sentence, *who* is the subject of *tills*, and is said to connect *who tills the soil* to *man*. It is plain that *who tills the soil* modifies *man*, but that *who* connects this modifier to *man* is not so clear. The mere fact that *man* is the antecedent of *who*, is not a sufficient reason, for on that principle it might be maintained that personal pronouns connect sentences to their antecedents.

Rem. 2.—The only ground upon which conjunctive adverbs can be said to connect the sentences of which they are members to other words, is the fact that they are equivalent to prepositions followed by relative pronouns; thus, in the sentence, 'He came to the town where I lived,' is equivalent to, 'He came to the town *in which* I lived.' Since *which* relates to *town*, it is affirmed that it connects *in which I lived* to the word *town*. This brings us back to the question considered in Rem. 1.

269. Most authors teach that both words of the following pairs are conjunctions: *Though—yet, although—yet, both—and, if—yet, if—then, because—therefore, therefore—for, therefore—because, indeed—but, either—or, neither—nor, whether—or, whereas—therefore, partly—partly, half—half, now—now*, etc.

Rem.—A careful study of the meaning and use of these words cannot fail to convince an intelligent student that whenever they are used in pairs, at least one word is either an adverb or an adjective, Take for example the sentence, 'I will trust him yet.' There is probably no author or teacher of grammar who will not agree that *yet* in this sentence is an adverb. How can the nature of this word be changed by using a subordinate sentence to modify *will trust?* 'I will trust him *yet, though he has once deceived me*,' is a complex sentence in which *will trust* is modified by the adverb *yet*, and the subordinate sentence, *though he has deceived me once.* This sentence may be written thus: '*Though he has deceived me once*, I will trust him *yet*.' Now, it cannot change *yet* into a conjunction to place it at the beginning of the sentence of which it is a part; thus, 'Though he has deceived me once, *yet* will I trust him.'

General Remarks.

1. **That** is frequently used as a mere introductory expletive to introduce a subordinate sentence having the construction of a noun; as, '*That* I failed is true;' 'I know *that* you are the man.'

2. Other conjunctions are sometimes employed to introduce a sentence: 'And now it is evening;' 'But we must pause.'

Remark.—Sometimes the conjunction merely serves to make the beginning of the sentence less abrupt, and sometimes it really connects paragraphs.

3. *As if, as though, provided that, seeing that, considering that, in case, at the same time, etc.*, are sometimes treated as complex conjunctions; but the practice is not commendable. In the sentence, 'He spoke as if he were angry,' there is plainly an ellipsis after *as*, the words *he would speak*, or others equivalent to them, being understood. In the sentence, 'I will go, provided that my absence shall be fully explained,' the words, *if it is*, or their equivalents, are plainly understood before *provided*. In the sentence, 'Seeing that you can't get what you wish, take what you can get,' the conjunction *since* may be substituted for *seeing that;* but *seeing* is evidently a transitive verb, its object being *that you can't get what you wish*.

4. Many authors state that the prepositions *ere*, *after*, and *before* are conjunctions when their objects are subordinate sentences; as, (1) We arrived BEFORE *he had concluded his remarks;* (2) He was very brave AFTER *the battle was over*.

CHAPTER IX.

INTERJECTIONS.

I. Definition.

INTERJECTION: Latin, *interjectio*, a throwing or placing between.

270. An Interjection is a word used chiefly to express or excite emotion.

271. Interjections are not to be confounded with other parts of speech used absolutely by exclamation.

II. Classification.

272. In the classification of interjections completeness and precision are not to be expected. The following classes are recognized, but the list is not exhaustive, and the classes are not mutually exclusive.

1. Of grief, sadness, or pity; 2. Of joy; 3. Of earnestness; 4. Of surprise, wonder, or horror; 5. Of contempt or aversion; 6. Of exultation; 7. Of silence; 8. Of calling attention; 9. Of detection; 10. Of salutation or parting; 11. Of laughter.

NOTE.—As interjections are chiefly used to express or excite emotion, they are but loosely connected in construction with other words.

273. Position.—Interjections are usually placed at the beginning of a sentence, but may occur in the midst of it, or at the end, or may be used alone.

WORDS AS DIFFERENT PARTS OF SPEECH.

Principles.

1. The meaning of a word is what we think of when we use that word.—JEVONS.

2. A word with two meanings is really two words.—ID.

3. The classification of words as parts of speech is based upon *meaning*, not construction.

Rem. 1.—It is sometimes said that whether a word belongs to this or that part of speech depends upon its syntactical use; but this doctrine is illogical, and leads to great confusion. Were it true, it would be impossible to define a single part of speech. What is a noun? It is a name, no matter what its syntactical use may be. If a noun were "any word that may be used as the subject of a verb," or "as the object of a transitive verb or of a preposition," *pronouns*, *infinitives*, *participles*, *adjectives*, and *adverbs*, would some times be nouns!

If any word that modifies a noun were an adjective, *nouns*, *pronouns*, *infinitives*, *participles*, and *adverbs*, would sometimes be adjectives!

It is not denied that the syntactical use of a word-form capable of various meanings usually enables the hearer or reader to determine the sense in which the speaker or writer uses the word, and thus to determine that the word is a *noun*, *verb*, or other part of speech. Take the following examples:

1. They paid us a *call.*
2. What say the neighbors when they *call?*

In the first sentence it is plain, from the construction that *call* means "*a short visit*"; and hence—*on account of its meaning*—we decide that *call* is a noun. In the second sentence it is equally clear that *call* means "*make a short visit*"; and we therefore decide that *call* is a verb.

Rem. 2.—Many authors teach that the adjectives "should be

parsed as nouns," in such expressions as, "The *wicked* shall perish, but the *good* shall be saved." No word should be "parsed as a noun" unless it is a noun. Are *wicked* and *good* nouns in the foregoing examples? A noun is a name, and plainly these words are not names. The sentence means, The wicked *persons* shall perish, but the good *persons* shall be saved; but *wicked* does not mean *wicked persons*, and *good* does not mean *good persons*. The modified nouns have simply been omitted. So in the following examples: "There are six apples on this tree and five [ ] on that [ ]. Pick the ripe [ ] but let the green [ ] remain." "The rich [ ] and the poor [ ] meet together; the Lord is the maker of them all."

> The sweet, plain words we learnt at first [ ] keep time,
> And, though the theme be sad, or gay, or grand,
> With each [ ], with all [ ], these [ ] may be made to chime,
> In thought or speech or song or prose or rhyme.
>
> —J. A. ALEXANDER.

Any argument that might be offered to prove that these adjectives are nouns, would serve equally to prove that the pronouns are nouns in such expressions as, Our hats are old, but *yours* and *his* are better than *mine*.

Directions.

Determine from its various meanings the different parts of speech that each of the following word forms may be. Define each "word" (see Principle 2), and write a sentence in which it is used correctly. Note any change in pronunciation; as *ac'cent* (noun)—*accent'* (verb). State whether the employment of the different "words" is **reputable** or **vulgar; national,** or **local,** or **technical; present** or **obsolete; frequent** or **rare.**

A, abaft, aboard, about, above, absent, abstract, accord, account, act, address, advance, advocate, affix, after, aid, ail, aim, air, alamode, alarm, alibi, alien, all, alley, alloy, ally, alone, along, amid, among, an, anger, animal, annex, answer, antecedent, antique, any, ape,

appositive, approach, appropriate, apropos, apt, arch, are, arm, around, art, as, attack, avail, awake, awe, azure, back, backward, bail, balance, bade, band, bask, baste, bat, bay, beam, bear, below, bend, beneath, beyond, blow, blush, book, boss, bound, bow, brace, break, brief, but, by, cab, call, calm, cancel, canopy, capital, care, carp, carry, case, cash, cast, cat, catch, cause, center (or centre), chain, change, charge, cheer, chill, cipher, class, clean, clear, close, coach, cold, color, common, content, contingent, contract, contrast, crisp, crop, cool, cope, copy, core, count, credit, convert, cross, crown, custom, dare, date, decay, clerk, decree, deed, defect, demand, design, die, dog, drop, ear, early, eke, espy, expect, excuse, exhaust, expose, face, faint, fair, fall, farm, fast, felt, flint, fly, fold, for, forfeit, frank, free, fret, full, gin, good, green, ground, half, halt, haw, help, hem, hide, high, hit, hold, house, how, idle, iron, isle, jest, joy, jingle, just, keep, ken, kind, knot, lock, lap, last, lay, lead, lie, like, line, link, list, live, lock, long, make, map, master, mean, mine, miss, mode, moot, must, name, nap, near, need, net, no, note, number, object, off, on, one, order, out, over, pack, pale, pall, past, pass, pay, pepper, perch, permit, pet, pine, pink, plane, play, polish, post, project, pump, quack, quarter, quiet, quit, race, rail, rain, raise, rap, raw, red, right, ring, rise, rock, room, rope, round, rout, row, run, sail, salt, same, saw, say, scout, school, scant, sear, see, self, set, sharp, shop, short, shut, side, sign, since, slight, smelt, sound, spar, start, state, steel, steep, stoop, stop, suspect, swallow, taboo, tack, taste, tatter, tear, thank, the, thee, this, thou, thread, through, use, what, while, wind, worth.

CHAPTER X.

CONSTRUCTIONS IN GENERAL.

NOTE.—Unless the class is unusually strong, the formal preparation of this chapter should be reserved for review. Ordinarily, it will be the better plan to study the constructions of the different parts of speech in the chapters that follow, referring to the definitions and discussion here given as they may be needed in such work.

274. Definition.—By the construction of a word is meant its syntactical use—the position and relation it has as a member of a phrase or sentence.

275. A word or element is said to modify another when used to limit, extend, explain, or emphasize its signification.

Rem. 1.—A word or element which is not modified is said to be simple.

Rem. 2.—When a word or element modifies another, the latter is called the base, or principal term of the combination; the former is called the modifier, or dependent term or element; and the base and modifier together form a complex element.

Rem. 3.—When an element consists of two or more simple or complex elements of equal rank, it is said to be *compound*. (But see Chap. XVIII for the use of the words *simple*, *complex*, and *compound* as employed in the analysis of sentences.)

The Subject of a Finite Verb.

276. Definition.—The Subject of a verb is the word, or

combination of words, denoting that concerning which the verb expresses action or the suffering of action, or being or state of being.

Rem. 1.—When the subject is complex or compound, the *base* is frequently spoken of as the subject.

Rem. 2.—This construction is possible for nouns, pronouns, infinitives participles, and subordinate sentences.

Rem. 3.—Strictly speaking, the finite verb is the principal term of a sentence, being modified by its subject, as well as by other elements; but most authors and teachers regard the finite verb and its subject as co-ordinate terms.

The Object of a Transitive Verb in the Active Voice.

277. Definition.—The Object of a transitive verb is the word, or combination of words, denoting that which receives the act expressed by the verb.

Rem. 1.—When the object is complex or compound, the *base* is frequently spoken of as the object.

Rem. 2.—This construction is possible for nouns, pronouns, infinitives, participles, and subordinate sentences.

Rem. 3.—The object of a transitive verb in the passive voice is also its subject, but the latter relation is so important that the former is usually ignored.

Rem. 4.—The definition of the object of a transitive verb, as given above, is not entirely satisfactory, and perhaps a perfect definition of the object of a verb cannot be made. In the following sentences the verbs have objects, but the objects are not described by the definition:—'He feels *pain*,' 'He hears a *sound*,' 'He sees a *book*,' 'He owns a *horse*,' 'He received a *blow*,' 'He owes me a *dollar*,' 'The pail contains *water*,' etc.

Other definitions have been given which are no better :

1. "The object of a verb denotes that upon which the act terminates." [As, 'The bullet missed the *mark*,' 'We passed *him* in the road,' 'The loss exceeds the *gain*,' 'The branches of the tree overhang the *stream*,' 'The horse outran the *cars*.']

2. "The complement of any verb is the word or words required to complete the statement. The complement of a transitive verb is called its object."

[In the expression, 'To climb a high hill,' is not *hill* the object of to climb? Does the expression make a complete statement? 'To climb a high hill is difficult.' Are not the words *is difficult* necessary to complete this statement? Are these words the object of *to climb?*]

3. "The object of a verb is the word (or words) which answers the question, '*Who?*' or '*What?*' in reference to the verb; as, 'He saw the *book*.' (Saw *what?*)"

[This certainly makes the matter very plain, as can be seen in the following:— 'He is my *friend*.' (Is *what?*) 'He became a good *student*.' (Became *what?*) 'She gave the *dog* a *bone*.' (Gave a *what?* a *what?*) 'The *book* cost a dollar.' (*What* cost a dollar?) '*John* studies law.' (*Who* does?)]

4. "That towards which an activity is directed, or is considered to be directed."

[Happily illustrated in the following:—'He went *home*.' 'He spoke to *me*.' 'I walked toward the *gate*.']

We must learn what is, and what is not the object of a verb from observation and experience.

The Complement of a Copulative Verb.

278. Definition.—The complement of a copulative verb is the word, or combination of words, denoting that in which the person or thing denoted by the subject is declared or assumed to be, or not to be, included.

Rem. 1.—When the complement is complex or compound, the *base* is frequently spoken of as the complement.

Rem. 2.—The complement is frequently abridged by the omission of the base; as, (1) John is *tall—i. e. a tall man;* (2) Some men are always cheerful [men]: John is one [ ] of these; (3) Some men are always in some kind of trouble: Henry is one [*man*] of that kind.

When the word (or words) retained expresses the leading quality of the person or thing denoted by what is omitted, what is retained is usually said to be the complement; and if an adjective, is said to modify—not the omitted base—but the subject. Thus, in the first example, *tall* is said to be the complement, and to modify *John*.

Rem. 3.—The complement is sometimes called the attribute, and sometimes, less properly, the predicate.

Rem. 4.—As already explained, the verb *be* is the only pure copula, but *seem*, *appear*, and *become* (intransitive) are usually treated as copulas.

Rem. 5.—This construction is possible for nouns, pronouns, infinitives, participles, prepositions and their objects, and subordinate sentences.

Rem. 6.—In the passive voice and progressive style, the participles which are added to the verb *be* are really complements. It is not usual, however, to treat them as such in parsing and analysis, but the combinations are taken as complex verbs.

The Subject of a Not-Finite Verb.

(a) *The Subject of an Infinitive.*

(b) *The Subject of a Participle.*

Rem. 1.—The subject of a not-finite verb is a modifier of the verb, and is usually so regarded though it really has less force as a modifier than the subject of a finite verb has. A finite verb is so called because it is finited, or limited, in person and number by its subject: an infinitive or participle is not so limited, but the act, state, etc., which it expresses is merely made general or particular by the use of a subject.

Rem. 2.—This construction is possible for nouns, pronouns, infinitives, participles, and subordinate sentences.

Absolute.

279. Definition. A word is said to be absolute when it has very little or no relation of dependence upon other words.

Rem. 1.—The word absolute comes from the Latin *absolutus*, which is made up of *ab*, from+*solutus*, loosened, or set free.

Some authors, misled by the etymology of the word, teach that a word or element which is absolute is never a part of a sentence. Others state that a word in this construction may be "associated" with the sentence as a whole, but can perform no "grammatical office" in the sentence of which it is a part. In fact, however, a word in this construction—

1. May form no part of a sentence; as, '*Wheat* for sale.'

2. May form a part of a sentence, but be independent; as, '*Charles*, come here.'

3. May form a part of a sentence and loosely modify a verb in the sentence; as, '*Friends* in time of distress, in our prosperity SHALL WE FORGET them?'

NOTE.—In the last example, *friends* is the base of the element, *friends in our distress*, which is a modifier of *shall forget*, being equivalent to, [*Seeing that*, or *As*, or *Since*, *they were*] friends in time of distress.

Rem. 2.—A word in this construction may be modified by other words; as, (1) A STORM *arising suddenly*, we entered the harbor. (2) HAVING *clearly* SEEN *the danger*, we prepared for it.

280.—There are at least nine phases of this construction.

281. (a) *Absolute by Address, Salutation, or Annunciation*—in which the name of a person or something personified, or some substitute for the name, is used merely to attract the person's attention, to indicate recognition, or to make the name known to others.

Rem.—This construction is possible for nouns and pronouns. Give examples.

282. (b) *Absolute by Exclamation*—in which the word is used emphatically to express surprise, admiration, pain, anger, dissent, or the like.

Rem.—This construction is possible for any part of speech, and is the one in which interjections are commonly used. Give examples.

283. (c) *Absolute by Pleonasm*—in which the word, through the use of a redundant word, or words, is deprived of the construction really or apparently intended for it.

Rem.—This construction is possible for any part of speech. Give examples.

284. (d) *Absolute by Inscription*—in which the word is written on something as a descriptive, explanatory, or illustrative memorandum.

Rem.—This construction is possible for any part of speech. Give examples.

285. (e) *Absolute by Subscription*—in which the name is written under, or at the end of what is said, to identify the person who writes or adopts what is contained in the document.

Rem.—This construction is possible for a noun. Give examples.

286. (f) *Absolute by Response*—in which the word is used in reply to some interrogation expressed or implied.

Rem.—This construction is possible for any part of speech. Give examples.

287. (g) *Absolute by Interrogation*—in which the word is used to ask a question.

Rem.—This construction is possible for any part of speech. Give examples.

288. (h) *Absolute as an Introductory Expletive*—in which the word is used to make the beginning of a phrase or sentence less abrupt.

Rem.—This construction is possible for an adverb, conjunction, or interjection. Give examples.

289. (i) *Absolute Adverbially, with or without a Participle*—in which the word, though absolute, has really the force of an adverbial modifier of a verb.

Rem.—This construction is possible for a noun, pronoun, adjective, infinitive, participle, or adverb.

In Apposition.

290. Definition.—A word, or combination of words, is said to be in apposition with another when added to it, somewhat parenthetically, by way of explanation, characterization, or emphasis.

Rem. 1.—A word, or combination of words, in apposition with another, repeats the idea of the latter in whole or in part, or adds to that idea.

Rem. 2.—An appositive word or element does not have the same construction as the principal term ; but, if possible, it should usually take the form which is called for by the construction of the principal term.

Rem. 3.—A word in this construction really modifies the principal term, and in the analysis of sentences is so considered.

291. There are two phases of this construction:

292. (a) *In apposition with a part of speech, or with something that has the construction of a part of speech.*

Rem.—This construction is possible for any part of speech. Give examples.

293. (b) *In apposition with something that does not have the construction of a part of speech.*

Rem.—A noun may be in apposition with a sentence that does not have the construction of a part of speech. Give examples.

Object of a Preposition.

294. Definition.—When a word or combination of words modifies a noun, pronoun, adjective, verb, or adverb, and a preposition is used to show the relation, the modifier is said to be the object of the preposition.

Rem.—This construction is possible for any part of speech except a preposition and an interjection. Give examples.

Modifying a noun, pronoun, adjective, verb, or adverb, without a preposition to show the relation.

295. This construction has three distinct phases.

296. (a) *Modifying a noun attributively to denote Authorship, Ownership, Origin, or Kind or Fitness.*

297. Definition.—A word that modifies another without being in apposition with it, and without being linked to it by a preposition or brought into relation with it by a verb, is said to be used *attributively.*

Rem.—This construction is possible for nouns and pronouns. Give examples.

298. (b) *Modifying a noun attributively to describe or specify.*

Rem.—This construction is possible for an adverb, noun, pronoun, adjective, infinitive, or participle. Give examples.

299. (c) *Modifying a verb, adjective, or adverb, attributively.*

Rem.—This construction is possible for a noun, pronoun, adjective, adverb, infinitive, or participle; and is the construction in which adverbs are most commonly found.

300. **Special Modifiers of a Verb.**

1. Indirect Object.—When a word is used to denote the person or thing to or for which an act is done, and its relation to the verb expressing that act is not shown by a preposition, the word so used is said to be the indirect object of the verb.

Rem.—This construction is possible for nouns and pronouns. Give examples.

2. Factitive Object.—When a word which modifies a transitive verb attributively, is made through the verb to modify the object of the verb, it is said to be the factitive object of the verb.

Rem.—This construction is possible for a noun, pronoun, adjective, adverb, or infinitive. Give examples.

Rem. 1.—Both the indirect object and the factitive object are adverbial modifiers of the verb. They must not be confused with the object of the verb.

Rem. 2.—The factitive object is sometimes called the "object complement," "objective predicate," etc. It tells the result or effect of the act expressed by the verb upon the person or thing denoted by the object.

Showing an Adjective or an Adverbial Relation.

Rem.—This construction is possible for prepositions.

Connecting terms Copulatively or Adversatively.

Rem.—This construction is possible for coördinative conjunctions, relative pronouns, and conjunctive abverbs.

Introducing a Sentence or Member of a Sentence—*not as an absolute expletive.*

Rem.—This construction is possible for both adversative and copulative conjunctions, for the expletive *there*, and the anticipative expletive *it*, and is the construction in which subordinative conjunctions are usually found.

Predicating Action or the Suffering of an Action, Being or State of Being.

301. Definition.—When a verb is used to assert, affirm, deny, interrogate, command, etc., it is said to *predicate* the act, state, etc., which it expresses.

Rem.—This construction is possible for finite verbs only.

TABLE OF CONSTRUCTIONS.

NOTE.—This table is inserted for convenience of reference in parsing.

I. Subject of a Finite Verb.
II. Object of a Transitive Verb in the Active Voice.
III. Complement of a Copulative Verb.
IV. Subject of a Not-Finite Verb:
  (a) Subject of an Infinitive.
  (b) Subject of a Participle.
V. Absolute:
  (a) Absolute by Address, Salutation, or Annunciation.

(b) Absolute by Exclamation.
(c) Absolute by Pleonasm.
(d) Absolute by Inscription.
(e) Absolute by Subscription.
(f) Absolute by Response.
(g) Absolute by Interrogation.
(h) Absolute as an Introductory Expletive.
(i) Absolute Adverbial—with or without a Participle.

VI. In Apposition:

(a) In Apposition with a Part of Speech, or with something having the construction of a part of speech.
(b) In Apposition with something not having the construction of a part of speech.

VII. Object of a Preposition.

VIII. Modifying a Noun, Pronoun, Adjective, Verb, or Adverb, without a Preposition to show the relation.

(a) Modifying a Noun Attributively, to denote Authorship, Ownership, Origin, or Kind (or Fitness).
(b) Modifying a Noun or Pronoun Attributively to describe or specify.
(c) Modifying a Verb, Adjective, or Adverb Attributively.

Special Modifiers of a Verb.

(1) The Indirect Object.
(2) The Factitive Object.

IX. Showing an Adjective or an Adverbial Relation.

X. Connecting Terms Copulatively or Adversatively.

XI. Introducing a Sentence or a Member of a Sentence.

XII. Predicating Action, or the Suffering of an Action, Being or State of Being.

CHAPTER XI.

CONSTRUCTION OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.

Construction I.—Subject of a Finite Verb.

Examples.—(1) The *man* walks; (2) *He* will be informed; (3) *Who* did this? (4) *I* know *what* troubles him.

302. Case.—A noun or pronoun in this construction should take the nominative case.

Rem. 1.—This principle is often incorrectly stated, thus: "A noun or pronoun used as the subject of a finite verb *is* in the nominative case." In the sentence, '*Him and me went*,' *him* and *me* are certainly subjects of *went*, and just as certainly are not in the nominative case, but have been incorrectly used in the objective case.

Rem. 2.—Infinitives, participles, and subordinate sentences may have this construction; but, as case is *form* and not *relation*, they should not be parsed as in the nominative case.

303. Position.—The subject of a finite verb usually precedes the verb, but it may follow it; as, "*Him* followed his next *mate*."

Construction II.—Object of a transitive Verb in the Active Voice.

Examples.—(1) John has recited his *lesson;* (2) Heartily recommend *him;* (3) Mary's teacher praised *her;* (4) *Whom* did you see?

304. Case.—(1) This construction calls for the objective case, and a pronoun having this form should take it in this construction.

(2) When the third, singular, feminine, of the personal pronoun is used in this construction, it should take the possessive case. (Why?)

(3) All other pronouns not having the objective case, and *all* nouns, should, when used in this construction, take the nominative case. (Why?)

Rem. 1.—Infinitives, participles, and subordinate sentences may also have this construction.

Rem. 2.—Some authors fail to discriminate between the object of a transitive verb and adverbial modifiers of the verb. For example, in the sentence, '*She taught him the song*,' both *him* and *song* are regarded as objects of *taught*. It is true that in the Latin both these words would be put in the accusative case, and *him*, as well as *song*, would be called the object of *taught*; but in English *him* is an adverbial modifier of *taught*, being the "indirect object"; and should it follow *song*, a preposition would be used to show its adverbial relation; as, 'She taught the song *to* him.' In the sentence, '*They elected him captain*,' *him* is the object of *elected*, and *captain* is the "factitive object"—*i. e.* an adverbial modifier denoting the result of the act expressed by the verb. The infinitive *to be* is not understood before *captain*.

305. Position.—A word in this construction usually follows the verb, but may precede it; as, (1) *Him* will I adore; (2) *Whom* do you think I mean? (3) The man *whom* you saw is my father.

Construction III.—The Complement of a Copulative Verb.

Examples.—(1) You are the *man*; (2) This [ ] is *he* of whom you spoke; (3) We believe the man to be *him*; (4) We had no doubt of its being *he*; (5) Who is he? (6) We supposed the writer to be *her*.

306. Case.—(1) A noun in this construction should take the nominative case.

(2) A pronoun in this construction should take the nominative case, if the verb is in any of the finite modes or is a participle.

(3) A pronoun having the objective case should take this form if the verb is an infinitive. The third, singular, feminine, of the personal pronoun, when used in this construction, should take the possessive case if the verb is an infinitive. (Why?)

Rem. 1.—Many authors teach that a noun or pronoun used in this construction should take the same case as the subject of the verb. How far is this true?

Rem. 2.—Many authors and teachers treat the italicized words in the following sentences as complex or "compound" copulas: John *is said to be* a fine scholar; He *is believed to be* an enemy; Gold *was held to be* a compound substance, but *is* now *known to be* one of the elements.

(These forms are discussed in Article 163, (3).)

Rem. 3.—The verbs *seem, appear, become, etc.*, though not pure copulas, are treated as copulas, and the nouns and pronouns which follow them in close relation are treated as complements.

307. Position.—A word in this construction usually follows the verb, but may precede it; as, (1) *Who* is that man? (2) "What a *piece* of work is man!"

Construction IV.—Subject of a Not-finite Verb.

(a) *Subject of an Infinitive.*

Examples.—(1) For *John* to return was impossible; (2) We wish *him* to study law; (3) We expect *her* to come.

Rem.—That the italicized words are subjects of the infinitives is clear for the following reasons:—(1) They have the relation described in the definition of the subject of a verb. (2) By changing the verbs to one of the finite modes, the italicized word will in each case become the subject of the finite verb:—(1) That *John* should return was impossible; (2) We wish that *he* would study law; (3) We expect that *she* will come. (Why are *him* and *her* changed to *he* and *she?*)

308. Case.—If possible, the subject of an infinitive should take the objective case. If the subject of an infinitive is a noun, or a pronoun not having the objective case, the usual substitutes are employed.

(b) *Subject of a Participle.*

Examples.—(1) *John's* being a lawyer is no excuse for his conduct; (2) I object to *his* acting as clerk.

309. Case.—If possible, the subject of a participle should take the possessive case.

Rem.—Infinitives, participles, and subordinate sentences may be used as subjects of infinitives and participles.

310. **Position.**—(1) The subject of an infinitive or participle usually precedes the verb, but the subject of an infinitive may follow it in inverted expressions; as, "This to do, I will not bid *him.*"

(2) When the subject of an infinitive or participle is anything else than a noun or a pronoun, it may follow the verb—its place before the verb being filled by the pronoun *it.*

Examples.—(1) We believed *it* to be inexpedient *to return;* (2) We deemed *it* to be impossible *that this should happen;* (3) I had no fear of *its* being proved *that he was guilty.*

Construction V.—Absolute.

(a) *By Address, Salutation, or Annunciation.*

Examples.—(1) *John,* come here; (2) "*O thou,* that rollest above"; (3) Good *morning;* (4) "A *recitation* by Mary Smith"; (5) "My *friend,* Mr. Adams, gentlemen."

311. Case.—Nominative.

(b) *By Exclamation.*

Examples.—(1) "*Scotland!* there's magic in the sound!" (2) Ah *me!* (3) "*What!* feed a child's body, and starve his mind!"

312. Case.—(1) *Nouns* should usually be in the nominative.

(2) *Pronouns* should usually be in the objective.

(c) *By Pleonasm.*

Examples.—(1) "*Gad*, a troop shall overcome him;" (2) "*He* that glories, let him glory in the Lord."

Rem. 1.—Pleonasm, in general, is the use of superfluous words. The word which is absolute by pleonasm is not superfluous, however, but is made absolute by, or on account of, some word or words which are superfluous. A word may be made absolute by pleonasm by giving to some other word the construction really or apparently intended for the former (as in the first example), or by an abrupt change in the structure of the sentence (as in the second example).

Rem. 2.—Pleonasms may be the result of ignorance or carelessness, or they may be deliberately constructed for rhetorical effect.

313. Case.—If possible, a noun or pronoun used absolutely by pleonasm should take the case called for by the construction the word would have had if it had not been made absolute.

(d) *By Inscription.*

Examples:—(1) *John Brown, Chicago, Ill.* (*superscription of an envelope*); (2) Webster's *Dictionary* (*title of a book*); (3) *Groceries* (*inscription of a sign-board*); (4) "*He*," "*she*," "*it*," etc. (*when used as the titles of books*).

314. Case.—(1) *Nouns* in this construction should usually have the nominative case.

(2) No rule can be given for *pronouns*. Fortunately, examples are not numerous.

(e) *By Subscription.*

Example.—A grateful country will rejoice at our success, and history will record it with immortal honor.—U. S. GRANT.

315. Case.—Nominative.

Rem.—Observe that not every name that is "subscribed" to a

written or printed document is absolute. Frequently, especially at the close of letters, the name of the writer is given some other construction.

Examples.—(1) Your obedient servant, *John Brown.* (Here *John Brown* is in apposition with *servant.*) (2) Yours [ ] truly, *John Brown.* (Here, *John Brown* is in apposition with the noun understood after *yours.*) (3) "With respect, I have the honor to be, etc., *Alexander Hamilton.*" (Here, *Alexander Hamilton* is the complement of *to be*, unless, indeed, it may be considered in apposition with "*etc.*")

(f) *By Response.*

Examples.—(1) "Mention his name." "*John Brown.*" (2) "Whom have they appointed?" "*You.*"

316. Case.—This construction is usually the result of an ellipsis, and the noun or pronoun, should, if possible, take the case appropriate to the construction the word would have were the omissions supplied. It should be remembered, however, that a word in this construction is *absolute.* It does not have the construction it would have, if there were no ellipsis.

(g) *By Interrogation.*

Examples.—(1) "Whom do you think I saw?" "*John Brown?*" (2) "Whom do you think they have appointed?" "*You?*"

317. Case.—See foregoing construction.

Rem.—This construction closely resembles that of *Absolute by Response*—indeed, is generally but a special form of that construction.

(h) *As an Introductory Expletive.*

(I know of no good example of a noun or pronoun in this construction. The pronoun *it* may be used as an introductory expletive, but is not absolute when so used.)

(i) *Absolute Adverbial—with or without a Participle.*

Examples.

1. **With a Participle.**—(1) The SUN *being risen*, we resumed our journey; (2) HE *being* unwilling, to whom shall I apply next?

NOTE.—The participle is a modifier of the noun or pronoun, and the absolute expression as a whole—with the noun or pronoun as its base—is a modifier of the finite verb.

2. **Without a Participle.**—(1) An honorable *man*, he could not stoop to flattery and falsehood; (2) A kind *teacher*, he could yet reprove with severity.

NOTE.—Many teachers appear to think that it makes the relation of a noun in this construction more readily understood to supply *being* before the absolute element; thus, '*Being* a kind teacher, he could yet reprove with severity.' This, however, changes the relation of *teacher*, making it the complement of *being*, and transfers the absolute adverbial relation to the participial. It is no more difficult to see that *teacher* is an adverbial modifier of *could reprove* than it is to see that *being* has this relation.

318. Case.—Nominative.

Rem. 1.—Infinitives, participles, adjectives, and even subordinate sentences may have this construction.

Rem. 2.—Many grammarians teach that a word in this construction is independent, but it is plain that the absolute expression represents a subordinate sentence that expresses time, cause, condition, or some attendant circumstance. Thus,

1. *My trunk being packed*, I sent for the carriage=*When*, or *since*, *my trunk was packed*, I sent for the carriage.

2. *Our task being accomplished*, we went home=*When*, or *since*, *our task was accomplished*, we went home.

3. *My thoughts being busy with this matter*, I did not observe the gathering storm=*Because*, or *since*, or *as*, *my thoughts were busy*, I did not observe the gathering storm.

It is plain that the abridged expressions retain the modifying force of the complete subordinate sentences.

In the following sentences, it is clear that the absolute phrases modify the finite verbs by showing attendant circumstances:

1. They advanced rapidly toward the town, *each man being anxious to engage in the contest for liberty.*

2. He sauntered along, *his musing fancies absorbing his whole soul.*

3. They struggled desperately, *each one* [ ] *striving to gain some advantage over his adversary.*

Construction VI.—In Apposition.

(a) *In apposition with a part of speech, or with something which has the construction of a part of speech.*

Examples.

1. **Principal term a Noun.**—(1) The FATHER, a sober *man,* gave us advice; (2) The DOER of this deed, *you, he,* or any one else, should be punished.

2. **Principal term a Pronoun.**—(1) I, *John,* saw these things; (2) You, *you* who appear so indifferent, will be the first to suffer.

3. **Principal term an Adjective.**—

> "The swan on still St. Mary's lake,
> Float double, *swan* and *shadow.*"

4. **Principal term a Finite Verb.**—He wept—*something* he had not done for years.

5. **Principal term an Infinitive.**—To return to his native land, hitherto an *impossibility,* was now easy.

6. **Principal term a Participle.**—Ringing the bell so violently—an unnecessary *feature* of the program—should be omitted from future performances.

7. **Principal term an Adverb.**—He comes frequently—every *day* or two.

319. Case.—If possible, a noun or pronoun in this construction

should usually take the case called for by the construction of the principal term.

Rem.—Many authors teach that, "A noun or pronoun in apposition with another *is* in the same case." To this I suggest the following objections:

1. If it is admitted that case is *form*, this rule is false in statement and intent. It is not even true that a noun or pronoun in apposition with another *should* always be in the same case as the principal term. For example, in the sentence, "Let it be in accordance with his Highness, the *King's*, pleasure," *King's* is in apposition with *Highness*, which is properly in the nominative case, while *King's* is properly in the possessive case. Again, the principal term may not have the case called for by its construction, and the term in apposition should not agree with the principal term; as, I shall punish the *offenders*, both you and *him*.

2. If by case *relation* is meant, the rule is not only false, but absurd. In the sentence, "John, my cousin, is visiting me," the relation of *cousin* is plainly that of apposition with *John*. Therefore, if *cousin* had the same relation as *John*, the latter would be in apposition with itself! Again, *John* is the subject of *is visiting:* hence, if *cousin* were in the same relation it would be the subject also. But by hypothesis the relation of *cousin* is that of apposition with *John*.

(b) *In apposition with a sentence which does not have the construction of a part of speech.*

Example.—All men are created equal,—a *fact* which all men should remember.

320. Case.—Nominative.

Position.—A word in this construction must follow the principal term.

Construction VII.—Object of a Preposition—*i. e.*,

Modifying a noun, pronoun, adjective, verb, or adverb, with a preposition to show the relation.

Examples.

1. **Principal term a Noun.**—(1) The TOP *of* the *house.* (2) A LETTER *for you* is in my possession.

2. **Principal term a Pronoun.**—(1) "HE *of* the golden *bar*"; (2) WHO *of us* can tell?

3. **Principal term an Adjective.**—(1) A tree DEAD *at* the *top*; (2) The substance is water, or something SIMILAR *to it.*

4. **Principal term a Verb.**—(1) We SHALL WALK *to town*; (2) GIVE the book *to me.*

5. **Principal term an Adverb.**—(1) AGREEABLY *to* your *request*, the investigation has been deferred; (2) FORTUNATELY *for us*, the weather has been pleasant.

321. Case.—This construction calls for the objective case. Nouns, and pronouns not having the objective case, employ the usual substitutes.

Rem. 1.—Infinitives, participles, adverbs, adjectives, and subordinate sentences, may also have this construction.

Rem. 2.—A word in this construction is called the "*object*" of the preposition which shows the relation.

Position.—The object of a preposition usually follows the preposition, but may precede it; as, He is a man *whom* I know nothing ABOUT; *What* are you looking FOR? It is a matter *that* I have given little attention TO.

Rem.—The pronoun *that* always precedes the preposition of which it is the object.

Construction VIII.—Modifying a noun, pronoun, adjective, verb, or adverb, without a preposition to show the relation.

(a) *Modifying a noun attributively to denote authorship, ownership, origin, or fitness (or kind).*

Examples.

1. **Denoting Authorship.**—(1) *Webster's* DICTIONARY; (2) Mr. Brown has published *his* GRAMMAR.

2. **Denoting Ownership.**—(1) *John's* HAT; (2) *His* HAT.

3. **Denoting Origin.**—(1) The *sun's* RAYS will penetrate the frozen ground; (2) The moon flooded the sleeping city with *her* mellow LIGHT.

4. **Denoting Fitness.**—(1) *Boys'* SHOES for sale; (2) By reading this article, ladies can learn how *their* HATS were trimmed fifty years ago.

322. Case.—(1) A *Pronoun* in this construction should take the possessive case.

(2) A *Noun* having this construction should take the possessive case, unless followed by a modifier which stands between it and the principal term.

Rem.—When a noun in this construction is followed by a modifier, the last word of the complex term takes the possessive case; as, (1) Somebody *else's* HAT; (2) "The captain of the *Fulton's* WIFE died yesterday; (3) He is at Smith the *book-seller's* [STORE]; (4) Peter the *Hermit's* ELOQUENCE.

(b) *Modifying a noun attributively to describe or specify.*

Examples.—My JOURNEY *home* was more pleasant than I had anticipated; (2) *Lawyer* JONES; (3) *Miss* BROWN; (4) "All the *he* and *she* SCOUNDRELS of the capital, writhed and twisted together, rush by you."—THACKERAY.

323. Case.—Nominative.

Rem. 1.—In parsing, such combinations as *Miss Brown, Captain Johnson, Mr.* (i.e. *Mister*) *Adams*, etc., are usually treated as single (complex) words. So with christian and family names when the two

are used together, although, strictly speaking, the former modifies the latter.

Rem. 2.—Prior to the eleventh century, the christian name was the principal term, and the surname was added to it as an appositive modifier; thus, *John Smith* was *John* the *smith; Thomas Williamson* was *Thomas*, *William's son*, etc. In modern times, however, the christian name is conferred both to re-enforce the family name, and to distinguish the recipient from the other members of the family.

Rem. 3.—Many adjectives have the same form as nouns; as, *gold*, *iron*, *German*, *Chinese*, etc. It is sometimes difficult to decide whether a given word in this construction is a noun or an adjective. In cases of doubt consult the dictionaries.

Rem. 4.—Adjectives, infinitives, participles, adverbs, prepositions and their objects, and subordinate sentences, may also have this construction.

(c) *Modifying a verb, adjective, or adverb attributively.*

Examples.

1. **Principal term a Verb.**—He HAS GONE *home.*
   a. **Factitive Object.**—(1) He MADE the tree a *boat;* (2) You cannot MAKE me *him.*
   b. **Indirect Object.**—(1) GIVE *John* the book; (2) HAND *me* the pencil.
2. **Principal term an Adjective.**—(1) He is six *feet* TALL; (2) NEAR *me* was an old man who had lost his limbs.
3. **Principal term an Adverb.**—You should have come an *hour* SOONER.

Rem. 1.—Many authors teach that a noun or pronoun in this construction is the object of a preposition understood, and recommend that the preposition be supplied in parsing. To this it may be objected:—(1) That supplying a preposition would not alter the relation of the noun or pronoun, but would change its construction. (2) That in many instances there is no preposition in the language which expresses the relation the noun or pronoun has in this construction.

Rem. 2.—Adverbs, infinitives, participles, prepositions and their objects, and subordinate sentences, may have this construction.

324. Case.—The construction calls for the objective case. Nouns and pronouns not having the objective case, employ the usual substitutes.

Rem.—Some authors who regard case as relation, teach that nouns and pronouns having this construction are in the objective case "without a governing word." Some of them state that a word in this construction is the "object of the relation." This, if I comprehend their explanation, means that a noun or pronoun may be the object of its case!

Construction IX.—Showing an Adjective or an Adverbial Relation.

(*Not possible for either noun or pronoun.*)

Construction X.—Connecting Copulatively or Adversatively.

(*Not possible for a noun.*)

Examples.

1. **As a Copulative Connective.**—(1) My case is in the hands of honorable men, *who* will do exact justice; (2) When at school, I studied grammar, *which* is as difficult as arithmetic.

NOTE.—In the first sentence, *who* equals *and they;* in the second sentence, *which* equals *and it.*

2. **As an Adversative Connective.**—(1) We employed another servant, *who* was no better than the former, however; (2) Being tired of walking, we tried riding, *which* also proved to be fatiguing.

NOTE.—In the first sentence, *who* equals *but he;* in the second sentence, *which* equals *but it.*

325. Case.—A pronoun having this construction performs the office

of a conjunction in addition to its pronominal function. As a pronoun, it will have some construction already considered, and the case which it should take is to be determined by the principles stated under such constructions.

Construction XI.—Introducing a Sentence or a Member of a Sentence.

(*Not possible for a noun.*)

Examples.

1. **Not as Expletives.**—(1) The man *who* tills the soil trusts in God; (2) The books *which* you ordered have arrived; (3) *What* he bids you do, do cheerfully; (4) The man *that* toils is worthy of his reward; (5) Such *as* come will be welcome; (6) There is no one *but* knows good from evil; (7) Why did you entrust the business to Charles, *who* has no qualifications for it? (8) Why do you pass all your time in reading trashy novels, *which* will unfit you for practical life?

Rem.—The relative pronouns in the foregoing sentences perform the offices of subordinative conjunctions—*i. e.*, the sentences which they introduce are modifiers. In the first six examples the subordinate sentences modify nouns; in the seventh and eighth, the subordinate sentences modify verbs.

2. **As an Expletive.**—(1) *It* is my purpose *to practice economy;* (2) I declare *it* to be my purpose *to practice economy;* (3) You cannot doubt *its* being my purpose *to practice economy.*

Rem. 1.—In the foregoing examples, *it* takes the place of the subject of the verb be, and allows that subject, *to practice economy,* to follow the verb. That it is a mere expletive will be clear if each sentence is written with the subject of the verb be in its usual position: (1) *To practice economy* is my

purpose; (2) I declare *to practice economy* to be my purpose; (3) You can not doubt *to practice economy* being my purpose.

Rem. 2.—*It* is the only pronoun that can have this expletive use; but the adverb *there* is used in the same manner; as, (1) *There* was *a man* here to see you; (2) *There* is *no doubt of the truth of the statement.*

Conjunctions, especially *that* and *for*, are frequently used expletively as introductory words.

326. Case.—In this construction, *it* should take the possessive case when used as the apparent subject of the participle; otherwise, the nominative case should be employed.

NOTE.—For the cases of relative pronouns, see "*Case,*" Xth Construction.

Exercises in Parsing Nouns and Pronouns.

The Steps.

1. Classify the word.
2. State its modifications.
3. State its construction.
4. If a pronoun, mention its antecedent.
5. If a relative pronoun, { (1) Classify it as a connective. (2) Mention the terms it connects.

Models.

Nouns.

I.

Sentence.

For *gods* delight in gods,
And thrust the weak aside;
To him who scorns their charities,
Their arms fly open wide.—EMERSON.

Parsing.

GODS:

1. *Classification.*—Noun, common, class, concrete, simple.
2. *Modifications.*—(Third),* plural, masculine, nominative.
3. *Construction.*—I., subject of the verb *delight.*

* **Rem.**—The parentheses denote that the word does not have the modification referred to, but that the meaning of the word calls for the form mentioned. In this sentence, *gods* denotes something spoken of, and if nouns had the modification of person, the word would take the form mentioned. The pronoun *their*, in the third line, refers to *gods*, and of course agrees with it in meaning; and since this pronoun has person, it takes the appropriate form.

II.

Sentence.

Then I said, "I covet *truth;*
Beauty is unripe *childhood's* cheat."—ID.

Parsing.

TRUTH:

1. *Classification.*—Noun, common, particular, abstract, simple.
2. *Modifications.*—(Third), singular, (neuter), nominative.*
3. *Construction.*—II., object of the verb *covet.*

* **Rem.**—Bear in mind that *case* means *form.* Nouns have only two forms to indicate their various relations. If *truth* had an objective case, it would take that form in the sentence, as the construction calls for it. If case were relation, *truth* would be in the objective case, and the fact would be stated under "Construction" in the formula for parsing; but it would still be necessary to state the form of the word under "Modifications." Students whose knowledge of the true significance of *case* is not sufficiently clear to make them "easy minded" in the correct parsing of nouns, should be permitted to write the word *form* after *nominative* in the model. The *relation* is stated under "Construction."

CHILDHOOD'S:

1. *Classification.*—Noun, common, particular, abstract, simple.
2. *Modifications.*—(Third), singular, (neuter), possessive.
3. *Construction.*—VIII. (a), modifying the noun *cheat* to denote ownership.*

* **Rem.**—The word *ownership* is here used in its broadest sense—signifying, "The state of having or possessing."

Sentence. III.

Ages and climes remote, to thee impart
What charms in Genius, or refines in Art ;
Thee, in whose *hands* the keys of Science dwell,
The pensive *portress* of her holy cell.—ROGERS.

Parsing.

HANDS:

1. *Classification.*—Noun, common, class, concrete, simple.
2. *Modifications.*—(Third), plural, (neuter), nominative.
3. *Construction.*—VII., the object of *in*, modifying the verb *dwell.*

PORTRESS:

1. *Classification.*—Noun, common, class, concrete, simple.
2. *Modifications.*—(Third), singular, feminine, nominative.
3. *Construction.*—VI. (a), in apposition with the pronoun *thee.*

Sentence. IV.

Sir Guy de Montfort was as brave a knight as ever laid lance in rest, or swung his glittering *battle-axe.*—T. S. ARTHUR.

Parsing.

SIR GUY DE MONTFORT :

1. *Classification.*—Noun, proper, designates a person, complex.
2. *Modifications.*—(Third), singular, masculine, nominative.
3. *Construction.*—I., subject of the verb *was.*

BATTLE-AXE :

1. *Classification.*—Noun, common, class, concrete, compound.
2. *Modifications.*—(Third), singular, (neuter), nominative.
3. *Construction.*—II., object of the verb swung.

Pronouns.

Sentence. I.

My golden spurs now bring to *me*,
And bring to me my richest mail,
For to-morrow I go over land and sea,
In search of the Holy Grail.—LOWELL.

Parsing.

MY:

1. *Classification.*—Pronoun, personal, simple.
2. *Modifications.*—First, singular, (common), possessive.
3. *Construction.*—VIII. (a), modifying the noun *spurs*, denoting ownership.
4. *Antecedent.*—Name of speaker—not given.

ME:

1. *Classification.*—Pronoun, personal, simple.
2. *Modifications.*—First, singular, (common), objective.
3. *Construction.*—VII., object of the preposition *to*, modifying the verb *bring*.
4. *Antecedent.*—The name of the speaker—not given.

II.

Sentence.

O *Thou*, whose presence went before
Our fathers on *their* weary way,
As with thy chosen moved of yore
The fire by night, the cloud by day.—WHITTIER.

Parsing.

THOU:

1. *Classification.*—Pronoun, personal, simple.
2. *Modifications.*—Second, singular, (common), nominative, solemn.
3. *Construction.*—V. (a), absolute by direct address.
4. *Antecedent.*—Name of the Deity—not given.

THEIR:

1. *Classification.*—Pronoun, personal, simple.
2. *Modifications.*—Third, plural, (common), possessive.
3. *Construction.*—VIII. (a), modifying the noun *way*, to denote ownership.
4. *Antecedent.*—*Fathers.*

III.

Sentence.

For *who* maketh *thee* to differ from another? and what hast thou *that* thou hast not received?

Parsing.

WHO:

1. *Classification.*—Pronoun, interrogative, simple.
2. *Modifications.*—(Third), number indeterminate, (common), nominative.
3. *Construction.*—I., subject of the verb *maketh.*
4. *Antecedent.*—Name or names of person or persons in general.

THEE:

1. *Classification.*—Pronoun, personal, simple.
2. *Modifications.*—Second, singular, (common), objective, solemn.
3. *Construction.*—IV. (a), subject of the infinitive *to differ.*
4. *Antecedent.*—Name of the person addressed—not given.

THAT:

1. *Classification.*—Pronoun, relative, simple.
2. *Modifications.*—(Third), number indeterminate, (neuter), nominative.
3. *Construction.*—II., object of the verb *hast received.*
4. *Antecedent.*—*What.*
5. *As a conjunction.*
   (1) Subordinative.
   (2) Introduces "*That thou hast not received.*"

IV.

Sentence.

I know *what* detains him.

Parsing.

WHAT:

1. *Classification.*—Pronoun, interrogative, simple.
2. *Modifications.*—(Third), (singular), neuter, nominative.

3. *Construction.*—I., subject of the verb *detains.*

4. *Antecedent.*—Name of the thing inquired after by the subordinate sentence, "*What detains him.*"

V.

Sentence.

The book is *hers*, not yours.

Parsing.

HERS:

1. *Classification.*—Pronoun, personal, simple.

2. *Modifications.*—Third, singular, feminine, possessive—strengthened form.

3. *Construction.*—VIII. (a), modifies a noun [*book*], or [*property*] understood, denoting ownership.

4. *Antecedent.*—Name of person spoken of—not given.

(Compare this method of parsing *hers* with that given in Harvey's Grammar, page 63, Article 68.)

VI.

Sentence.

Do cheerfully *what* is assigned you.

Parsing.

WHAT:

1. *Classification.*—Pronoun, relative, simple.

2. *Modifications.*—(Third), (singular), neuter, nominative.

3. *Construction.*—I., subject of the verb *is assigned.*

4. *Antecedent.*—Some noun not given but understood as the object of *do.*

5. *As a Conjunction.*

   (1) *Subordinative.*

   (2) Introduces as a modifier of its supposed antecedent the sentence, "*what is assigned you.*"

VII.

Sentence.

If a field be in the form of an equilateral triangle *whose* altitude is

4 rods, what would be the cost of fencing it in, at 75 cents a rod.—RAY'S HIGHER ARITHMETIC.

Parsing.

WHOSE :

1. *Classification.*—Pronoun, relative, simple.
2. *Modifications.*—(Third), (singular), neuter, possessive.
3. *Construction.*—VIII. (a), modifying the noun *altitude*, to denote ownership.
4. *Antecedent.*—*Triangle.*

Rem.—*Whose* in this sentence is the possessive case of *what*, and not of *who*. See Declension of Pronouns, 2, 3.

NOTE.—When writing out a lesson in parsing, the student will follow the arrangement shown in the **models**; but in placing the work on the black-board at recitation, it will be better to arrange it in vertical columns, as follows :

GOD'S :

1. *Classification.*
   Noun,
   common,
   class,
   concrete,
   simple.
2. *Modifications.*
   (Third),
   plural,
   masculine,
   nominative.
3. *Construction.*
   I. Subject of the verb *delight.*

MY :

1. *Classification.*
   Pronoun,
   personal,
   simple.
2. *Modifications.*
   First,
   singular,
   (common),
   possessive.
3. *Construction.*
   VIII. (a), modifying the noun *spurs*, denoting ownership.
4. *Antecedent.*
   Name of the speaker, not given.

CHAPTER XII.

CONSTRUCTION OF ADJECTIVES.

Construction III.—Complement of a Copulative Verb.

Examples.

(a) **The Verb being Finite.**—(1) The grass is *green;* (2) If he be *guilty*, conviction is *certain;* (3) He could be *honest;* (4) Be *honest.*

(b) **The Verb being Not-Finite.**—(1) We wish him to be *diligent;* (2) His being *honest* will cause people to respect him.

Rem. 1.—Though most authors recognize this construction of an adjective, some do not require it to be given in parsing—the practice being merely to state that the adjective modifies (or "belongs to") the subject of the verb.

Rem. 2.—An adjective may have this construction when the subject of the verb is an infinitive, a participle, or a subordinate sentence; as, (1) To return was *impossible;* (2) His being a good swimmer was *fortunate;* (3) That all men are created equal is *true.*

Rem. 3.—In all their constructions, the present and perfect infinitives and participles of the verb *be* may be followed by adjectives in this construction.

Rem. 4.—An adjective used as the complement of a participle which

modifies a noun attributively (See Construction VIII. (b)), may refer to the noun which the participle modifies; as, (1) The boy being *honest* was respected by all; (2) The heat being *intense*, we remained in-doors.

Rem. 5.—Definitive adjectives do not often have this construction. When they appear to be used as complements, they are generally supposed to modify nouns understood; as, (1) We are *seven* [ ]; (2) Your friends are *many* [ ]; (3) This is *all* [ ]. In these examples the adjectives modify nouns implied, which are the real complements of the verbs.

Some difficulty in applying this principle arises when definitive and descriptive adjectives are connected by a co-ordinative conjunction; as, (1) Your friends are *many* and *true;* (2) "*Few* and *short* were the prayers we said."

The practice among teachers is not uniform, but the prevailing custom is to consider the complement as compound, and not to supply nouns after *many* and *few*.

NOTE.—The simple fact is that in all cases where an adjective appears to be the complement of a copulative verb, the complement has been abridged by omitting the base—*i. e.*, the noun, or its equivalent, which the adjective modifies. Were this fact recognized, the confusion mentioned would be avoided; but the practice of regarding descriptive adjectives as complements has become too firmly established to be changed by merely showing that it is erroneous and inconvenient.

Rem. 6.—Nouns, pronouns, infinitives, participles, and subordinate sentences may have this construction. An adverb, however, does not have this construction.

Rem. 7.—A word in this construction is by some authors called the "attribute complement," and by others simply the "attribute." The term complement is preferable, however, for reasons already given.

Rem. 8.—Some authors refer to a word in this construction as being used "in the predicate with is," "in the predicate with were," etc. These expressions are subject to criticism on account of their indefiniteness. The predicate is "that part of the sentence which is not the subject."—(Century Dictionary). Any word of a sentence of which

is is the copula is "in the predicate with is," if not in the subject. Thus, in the sentence, "*John is very tall for one of his age*," seven words are "in the predicate with *is*," but only one is the complement of *is*.

327. Position.—An adjective in this construction usually follows the verb, but may precede it; as, (1) "*Black* as your hat was the night"; (2) "*Youngest* of all was he of the men who came in the May Flower."

Construction V.—Absolute.

Examples.

(b) *By Exclamation.*—"*Good!* I am glad to hear you say it."

(c) *By Inscription.*—Examples are seldom met in books.

The words "*Hot*," "*Cold*," "*Moist*," and "*Dry*," in the diagram of the Lower Regions given in Sprague's edition of Paradise Lost, are examples.

(1) **Absolute Adverbial.**—"*Great* in life, he was surpassingly great in death."

Rem.—Other examples of adjectives in the fifth construction may occasionally be met. All that is attempted here is to show that the construction is possible for the adjective.

Construction VI.—In Apposition.

(a) *In apposition with a part of speech, or something having the construction of a part of speech.*

Examples.

1. **Principal term a Noun.**—(1) A cloud of smoke, *black*, *silent*, *horrible*, puffed a hundred feet into the air.

(2) From the sky, *serene* and *far*,
A voice fell, like a falling star,
Excelsior!—LONGFELLOW.

2. **Principal term a Pronoun.**—"You,—*young*, *talented*, *wealthy*, —how can you be despondent?"

3. **Principal term an Adjective.**—His doctrines are EXOTERIC—*capable* of being readily comprehended.

4. **Principal term an Infinitive.**—Is he a man TO TRUST—*worthy* of our confidence?

328. Position.—An adjective in this construction follows the principal term.

Construction VII.—Object of a Preposition.

Examples.—(1) Your grade is anything but *good*. (2) He is handsome, witty, courageous, kind—everything but *honest*.

Rem.—An adjective in this construction is not to be confused with the so-called use of the adjective as a noun.

Construction VIII.—Modifying a noun, pronoun, adjective, verb, or adverb, without a preposition to show the relation.

(b) *Modifying a noun or pronoun attributively to describe or specify.*

Examples.—(1) The *beautiful* SPRING has come; (2) *That* MAN; (3) HE *alone* remained; (4) *Happy* WE.

329. Position.—An adjective in this construction usually precedes the principal term, but may follow it.

(c) *Modifying a verb, adjective, or adverb attributively.*

Examples.

1. **Principal term a Verb.**—(1) He STOOD *firm;* (2) The apple TASTES *sour;* (3) John REMAINED *silent;* (4) His face GREW *black*.

Factitive Object.—(1) She WRINGS the clothes *dry;* (2) The stick WAS MADE *straight;* (3) We CALLED him *honest*.

Rem.—Adjectives in this construction are by some authors treated as adverbs, but are more frequently called complements of the verbs and are disposed of as if the verbs were copulas. It must be clear, however, that in each of the examples given, as well as in others of frequent occurrence, the adjective really modifies the verb as well as the noun or pronoun into relation with which the adjective is brought by the verb.

2. **Principal term an Adjective.**—(1) He wore a *light* GREEN coat; (2) His hair is *dark* BROWN; (3) The water was of a *deep* BLUE color.

Rem.—In parsing, *light green*, *dark brown*, and *deep blue*, are to be considered complex adjectives. Sometimes they are written as compound words.

Exercises in Parsing Adjectives.

The Steps.

1. Classification.
2. Modifications, if any.
3. Construction.
   (1) If used in the third, fifth, or eighth construction, designate the word or combination of words to which it relates.
   (2) If it admits of comparison, state by which method, and give the different forms.

Models.

Sentence.

I

The *American* farmer, son of the sun,
Bronzed with a glow from its glory won,
As *free* as the air it is heaven to inhale,
And strong as the steeds of the prairie gale,

Lord of his castle and broad domain,—
The herd his vassals, the flock his train,
And rich in the coin his granaries hoard,
He sits at the head of his bountiful board,
And laughs at the *crowded* world afar
Buzzing with ceaseless commercial war.—H. W. PARKER.

Parsing.

AMERICAN:

1. *Classification.*—Adjective, descriptive, qualitative, proper, simple.
2. *Modifications.*—None.
3. *Construction.*—VIII. (b), modifying the noun *farmer.*

FREE:

1. *Classification.*—Adjective, descriptive, simple.
2. *Modification.*—Positive degree.
3. *Construction.*—VI. (a), in apposition with the noun *farmer.*
4. *Compared regularly,—free, freer, freest.*

CROWDED:

1. *Classification.*—Adjective, descriptive, qualitative, participial, simple.
2. *Modification.*—Positive degree.
3. *Construction.*—VIII. (b), modifying the noun *world.*
4. *Periphrastic Comparison.*

II.

Sentence.

The sweet plain words we learnt at first keep time,
And, though the theme be *sad* or gay or grand,
With each, with all, *these* may be made to chime
In thought or speech or song or prose or rhyme.
—J. A. ALEXANDER.

Parsing.

SAD:

1. *Classification.*—Adjective, descriptive, qualitative, simple.

2. *Modification.*—Positive degree.

3. *Construction.*—III., the complement of *be*, relating to the noun *theme*.

4. *Compared regularly,—sad, sadder, saddest.*

THESE:

1. *Classification.*—Adjective, definitive, pronominal, demonstrative, simple.

2. *Modification.*—Plural number.

3. *Construction.*—VIII. (b), modifying the noun [*words*].

III.

Sentence.

There is who maketh himself *rich*, and wanteth all things;
who maketh himself poor, yet hath much wealth.—PROVERBS.

RICH:

1. *Classification.*—Adjective, descriptive, qualitative, simple.

2. *Modification.*—Positive degree.

3. *Construction.*—VIII. (c), factitive object of the verb *maketh*, relating to the pronoun *himself*.

4. *Compared regularly,—rich, richer, richest.*

V.

Sentence.

Many a more difficult problem has been solved.

Parsing.

MANY A:

1. *Classification.*—Adjective, definitive, pronominal, indefinite, complex.

2. *Modifications.*—None.

3. *Construction.*—VIII. (b), modifying the noun *problem*.

MORE DIFFICULT:

1. *Classification.*—Adjective, descriptive, qualitative, complex.

2. *Modification.*—Comparative degree.

3. *Construction.*—VIII. (b), modifying the noun *problem*.

4. *Periphrastic comparison.*

VI.

Sentence.

He wore a woolen coat, of *light green* color, heavily ornamented with *brass* buttons.

Parsing.

LIGHT GREEN:

1. *Classification.*—Adjective, descriptive, qualitative, complex.
2. *Modifications.*—None.
3. *Construction.*—VIII. (b), modifying the noun *color*.

BRASS:

1. *Classification.*—Adjective, descriptive, material, simple.
2. *Modifications.*—None.
3. *Construction*—VIII. (b), modifying the noun *buttons*.

VII.

Sentence.

This man's motives were good, the *other's* were bad.

Parsing.

OTHER'S:

1. *Classification.*—Adjective, definitive, pronominal, demonstrative, simple.
2. *Modifications.*—Singular, possessive.
3. *Construction.*—VIII. (b), modifying the noun [*man*].

REMARK.—An adjective modifying an implied noun takes the possessive case when the noun's construction calls for that form.

Examples for Practice.

State the construction of each adjective in the following sentences. Tell what each modifies. Parse italicized words.

1. There was a pause of death-like stillness; and the bold heart of Macpherson grew faint. 2. Through the lightened air a higher lustre and a clearer calm, diffusive, tremble. 3. Red through the stormy vale

comes down the stream. 4. You would not have me make a trial of my skill upon my child! Impossible! 5. A certain man had two sons. 6. His lips grow restless, and his smile is curled half into scorn. 7. Mr. Winkle expressed exquisite delight, and looked exquisitely uncomfortable. 8. You can only form the minds of reasoning animals upon Facts: nothing else will ever be of any service to them. 9. "You hard-headed, obstinate, crusty, musty, fusty, old savage!" said I. 10. He sat at his door one midsummer night. 11. With the stupidest boys he was kind and cool. 12. "Very strange, very strange," said Simonides; "but it is not so strange to me as that he should prefer to live poor when he could be so rich." 13. With the exception of a few attempts at continuation, we find only standstill, and a gradual retrogression of the Platonic philosophizing. 14. Look first to that curse of God—comfortless, as you all know, except by death—leprosy. 15. The moon, cold and pale, sinks into the western wave. 16. Swift and noiseless we are upon them. 17. Whelphy Whewell White was a whimsical, whining, whispering, whittling whistler. 18. They despised all the accomplishments and all the dignities of the world, confident of the favor of God. 19. To master them in their multiplied combinations, is to render the lips and tongue exceedingly flexible and trustworthy.

20. Nothing grand or beautiful grows,
Save by gradual, slow degrees.

21. Ask of thy mother earth why oaks are made
Taller or stronger than the weeds they shade.

22. Thou slave! thou wretch! thou coward!
Thou little valiant, great in villainy!
Thou ever strong upon the stronger side!

23. Each year shall give this apple-tree
A broader flush of roseate bloom,
A deeper maze of verdurous gloom,
And loosen, when the frost-clouds lower,
The crisp brown leaves in thicker shower.

24. He is condemned to that appalling interment, long, infallible, implacable, impossible to slacken or to hasten.

25. There were swarms of curious, half-lizard, half-bird-like animals on the land ; and they were of all sizes, some no bigger than a crow, and some as large as the albatross, measuring twelve feet across their outstretched wings.

26. They have likewise discovered two lesser stars, or satellites, which revolve about Mars ; whereof the innermost is distant from the centre of the primary planet exactly three of his diameters, and the outermost five ; the former revolves in the space of ten hours, and the latter in twenty-one and a half ; so that the squares of their periodic times are very near in the same proportion with the cubes of their distances from the centre of Mars; which evidently shows them to be governed by the same law of gravitation that influences the other heavenly bodies.

CHAPTER XIII.

CONSTRUCTION OF ADVERBS.

Construction V.—Absolute.

(b) *By Exclamation.*—"*Well!*" quoth the little Brook, "this is something like life."

(c) *By Pleonasm.*—"*Possibly* she—well, I am certain she has forgotten me."

(f) *By response.*—(1) "Which way did he go?" "*Forward.*" (2) "Do you understand me?" "*Perfectly.*" (3) "Did you see him?" "*Yes.*"

330. Some authors teach that *yes*, *no*, *ay*, *yea*, *etc.*, when used in answer to questions, modify an entire sentence understood. This can not be true if it means that these words do anything more than indicate the *quality* of the sentence which might be used in answer to the question. The words themselves are complete answers, and when followed by answers in the form of sentences, the question receives double answers; as, "Did you see him?" "*Yes, I saw him.*"

(g) *By Interrogation.*—"I shall go to town." "*When?*"

Rem.—It is not necessary to supply other words in parsing adverbs in this construction.

(h) *Absolute as an Introductory Expletive.*—*Well*, what shall we do now?

(i) *Absolute Adverbial—without a participle.*—*Truly*, I do not know what to do.

Construction VI.—In Apposition.

(a) *In apposition with a Part of Speech, or something that has the construction of a Part of Speech.*

Examples.

1. **Principal term an Adverb.**—He went IMMEDIATELY—as *soon* as he could arrange to do so.

2. **Principal term a Preposition and its Object.**—He started WITHOUT DELAY—*immediately*.

3. **Principal term a Subordinate Sentence.**—He started WHEN HE RECEIVED YOUR LETTER—*immediately*.

Construction VII.—Object of a Preposition.

Examples.

1. **Principal term a Noun.**—Of my HABITS *since then* I shall not speak.

2. **Principal term a Verb.**—I HAVE not HEARD from him *till now*.

3. **Principal term an Adverb.**—He went AWAY *from here* yesterday.

331. There should be no unwillingness to accept the fact that adverbs and adjectives may have this construction. A preposition always shows—never creates—an adjective or an adverbial relation; and it is undeniable that adverbs may occasionally assume the functions of adjectives, and *vice versa*. It may be urged that *then* and *now*, in the examples given, are substitutes for *that time*, and *this time;* but this is merely to say that adverbs, as substitutes for nouns, may sometimes be used in this construction. No one will insist that a substitute for a noun must needs become a noun; for upon that hypothesis, pronouns would become nouns, and so would infinitives, participles, and sentences, when used in constructions possible for nouns.

I append the following additional examples of adverbs in this construction:

1. I have seen people like him before *now*. 2. I shall go from *here* to Chicago. 3. From *there* I shall go to New York. 4. Charles passed by *here* this morning. 5. Our journey from *there* was pleasant. 6. The road from *here* to town is in good condition. 7. They come from *abroad*. 8. I have not spoken to him above *once* or *twice*. 9. He has not been here, or around *here*, for more than a year. 10. From *here* to the state line the fare is three cents a mile, but beyond *there* it is five cents. 11. Speak to him at *once*.

332. That the foregoing sentences are "correct English" no one will probably deny. The following examples, though frequently met in the works of our best writers—especially those of a generation ago, and earlier, are condemned by the grammarians—*from thence*, *from hence*, *from whence*, *from whither*, *from thither*, etc.

By common consent, *where* should not be used as the object of *at*, *to*, etc., as in the following sentences: *Where* is your hat *at?* *Where* did he go *to?* *Where* is he *at?* *Where* was I *at?*

Construction VIII.—Modifying a Noun, Pronoun, Adjective, Verb, or Adverb without a Preposition to show the relation.

(b) *Modifying a Noun or Pronoun attributively to describe or specify.*

Examples.

Principal term a Noun.—(1) My stay *here* must be brief. (2) My thoughts *then* I can not describe. (3) My journey *there* was pleasant. (4) My resolution *now* was to return as speedily as possible. (5) Of my conduct *then* I shall not boast now. (6) My purpose *then* is not my purpose now.

NOTE 1.—I hesitate to say that *now*, in the last sentence, modifies the preceding word.

NOTE 2.—I know of no good example of a pronoun so modified by an adverb.

NOTE 3.—It will be observed that the nouns in the foregoing examples are transmuted verbs.

(c) *Modifying a Verb, Adjective, or Adverb.*

Examples.

1. **Principal term a Verb.**—He RETURNED *quickly.*
2. **Principal term an Adjective.**—You are *very* KIND.
3. **Principal term an Adverb.**—He returned *very* QUICKLY.

Construction X.—Connecting terms Copulatively or Adversatively.

Examples.

1. **Connecting terms Copulatively.**—From Chicago we went to Philadelphia, *where* we remained a week.

2. **Connecting terms Adversatively.**—You said you had talked with John, *when* you had not even seen him.

Rem.—In the first example, *where* is equivalent to *and there.* In the second example *when* is equivalent to *but.* Additional examples of the use of adverbs as coördinative connectives are seen in the following sentences: 1. He is in Europe, *where* he is trying to organize a company to build a railroad. 2. He is at Topeka, *whence* he expects to go to New Orleans. 3. Do as you please, *only* let your intentions be apparent. 4. You seemed to be a friend, *while* all the time you were plotting to accomplish my ruin. 5. We shall remain till Christmas, *when* we expect to return.

Construction XI.—Introducing a Sentence or a Member of a Sentence.

Examples.

1. **Used as a Subordinative Conjunction.**—(1) I will go *when* he returns. (2) *Whereas* it has come to the knowledge of this body that great distress exists in various parts of the country, etc.

Rem.—In the first example, *when* equals *at which,—at the time* being implied after will go. In the second example, *whereas* is equivalent to *since* or *because.*

2. **Used as an Introductory Expletive—not Absolute.**—*There* was a man here this morning.

Rem. 1.—*There* is the only adverb that can have this construction.

Rem. 2.—This use of *there* is similar to the use of *it* as an anticipative expletive. Each takes the place of the real subject of the verb, for the purpose of allowing the subject to follow the verb; and neither has any other function in the sentence.

Exercises in Parsing Adverbs.

The Steps.

1. Classify the word.
2. State its modifications.
3. State its construction.
4. If it can be compared, state by which method, and give the different forms.
5. If a conjunctive adverb, state whether it is co-ordinative or subordinative, and tell what it connects, or introduces.

Models.

I.

Sentence.

He did the work *well.*

Parsing.

WELL:

1. *Classification.*—Adverb, of manner, expresses quality, modifying, simple.
2. *Modification.*—Positive degree.
3. *Construction.*—VIII. (c), modifying the verb *did.*
4. *Compared irregularly—well, better, best.*

II.

Sentence.

Eloquence, to produce her full effect, should start from the head of the orator, like Minerva from the head of Jove, *completely* armed and equipped.

Parsing.

COMPLETELY:

1. *Classifications.*—Adverb, of degree, expresses sufficiency, modifying. simple.
2. *Modifications.*—None.
3. *Construction.*—VIII. (c), modifying the verbs *armed* and *equipped*.

III.

Sentence.

Why did you send for me?

Parsing.

WHY:

1. *Classification.*—Adverb, of illation, interrogative, simple.
2. *Modifications.*—None.
3. *Construction.*—VIII. (c), modifying the verb *did send*.

IV.

Sentence.

From *there* we went to Chicago.

Parsing.

THERE:

1. *Classification.*—Adverb, of place in which, modifying, simple.
2. *Modifications.*—None.
3. *Construction.*—VII., Object of the preposition *from*, modifying the verb *went*.

V.

Sentence.

Well, gentlemen and brothers, cried the kettle again, don't be downhearted.

Parsing.

WELL:

1. *Classification.*—Adverb, of manner, expresses quality, modifying, simple.
2. *Modifications.*— Positive degree.
3. *Construction.*—V., absolute as an introductory expletive.
4. *Compared irregularly—well, better, best.*

VI.

Sentence.

Aristotle says that upon the river Hypanis, in Asia, *there* exist little insects who live only an hour, and that many generations of them pass away in a day.

Parsing.

THERE:

1. *Classification.*—Adverb, of place in which, modifying, simple.
2. *Modifications.*—None.
3. *Construction.*—XI., having the position of the subject of the verb *exist*, and thus allowing the subject, *little insects who live only an hour*, to follow the verb.

VII.

Sentence.

We went to Chicago, *where* we remained a week.

Parsing.

WHERE:

1. *Classification.*—Adverb, of place in which, conjunctive, simple.
2. *Modifications.*—None.
3. *Construction.*—VIII. (c), modifying the verb *remained.*
4. *As a conjunction*, coördinative; connecting the two sentences, *We went to Chicago*, and *where we remained a week.*

VIII.

Sentence.

And, *when* he had spent all, there arose a mighty famine in the land; and he began to be in want.

Parsing.

WHEN:

1. *Classification.*—Adverb, of time past, modifying, simple.
2. *Modifications.*—None.
3. *Construction.*—VIII. (c), modifying the verb *had spent.*
4. *As a conjunction*, subordinative; introducing the sentence, *when he had spent all.*

Examples for Parsing.

1. It is as cold as ice. 2. I am daily with you. 3. Come hither, my little page. 4. The harder he tries the less progress he makes. 5. Whence and what art thou, execrable shape. 6. Are you going to town now? No. 7. Very likely I shall go to-morrow. 8. I know why he has gone away. 9. He cut the ice through. 10. How far have they gone? 11. Perhaps our friends have returned. 12. Far from the busy scenes of life dwelt a pious recluse. 13. I think he will surely come back. 14. Come whenever you can do so. 15. He taught the doubtful battle where to rage. 16. Sail on, sail on, O Ship of State.

17. And he fain would have filled himself with the husks that the swine did eat.

18. Alone in his castle, with the grim faces of his ancestors looking down upon him from the wall, Sir Guy paced to and fro with hurried step.

19. "A little investment that I made some ten years ago," replied Mr. Barton, smiling, "has recently proved exceedingly profitable."

20. "Some words sound out like drums; some breathe memories sweet as flutes; some call like a clarionet; some shout a charge like trumpets; some are as sweet as children's talk; others, rich as a mother's answering back."

21. He could not see his verses burn,
Although his brain was fried;
And ever and anon he bent
To wet them as they dried.

22. At first in Eden's bowers they say,
    No sound of speech had Adam caught;
    But whistled like a bird all day,
    And maybe 'twas for want of thought.

23. Near yonder copse, where once the garden smiled,
    And still where many a garden-flower grows wild,
    There, where a few torn shrubs the place disclose,
    The village preacher's modest mansion rose.

24. Unhappy White! while life was in its spring,
    And thy young muse just waved her joyous wing;
    The spoiler swept that soaring lyre away,
    Which else had sounded an immortal lay.

25. And now, what were you, if none did for you
    What you ne'er did and ne'er can do for them?
    For what can you return to God for all?
    Your very spirit means *His* spirit—given;
    Then like that spirit, freely, purely, truly,
    Divinely, do for every one your best.
    Thus only can you live in righteousness,
    In heavenly peace, joyful, and free from care;
    Thus will you live even as *His* spirit lives;
    Thus will you in his very kingdom dwell.

CHAPTER XIV.

CONSTRUCTION OF FINITE VERBS.

Construction XII.—Predicating action or the suffering of an action, being or the state of being.

Examples.—He *shut* the door; The door *was shut;* There *are* seven men here; The tree *is* tall; John *is* a scholar.

Rem.—The word *predicate* is derived from the Latin, *præ*, before, and *dicare*, to declare, publish, proclaim. As a verb, it signifies *affirm, declare, assert, affirm as an attribute or quality of some thing.* As here employed, it includes *affirming, denying, interrogating, commanding, etc.*

333. That concerning which a verb expresses action or the suffering of an action, being or state of being, is the **subject** of the verb.

334. A verb may have a compound subject, and two or more verbs may have the same subject; as, (1) *John* and *James* STUDY; (2) *John* STUDIES and RECITES; (3) *John* and *James* STUDY and RECITE.

335. **Position.**—A verb usually follows its subject, but may precede it; as, *Come* YE in peace, or *come* YE in war? Then *burst* his mighty HEART.

Rem.—A finite verb may be in apposition with another; as, I think he WILL SUCCEED—*accomplish* his undertaking.

336. Person and Number.—It is usually stated that finite verbs must agree with their subjects in person and

number. This means that the verb, so far as possible, should take a form appropriate to the meaning of its subject.

As to Person.

337. If the subject denotes the speaker, the verb should be in the first person; as, I *am*, I *move*, I *shall go*, I *am walking*.

338. If the subject denotes the person spoken to, the verb should be in the second person; as, Thou *art*, Thou *movest*, Thou *mayst be*.

339. If the subject denotes the person or thing spoken of the verb should be in the third person; as, He *is*, He *moves*, The man *speaks*, He *is walking*.

Rem.—When two or more nouns or pronouns connected by *or* or *nor* are used as the subject of a verb, the verb should agree with the one nearest it; as, Either JOHN or YOU *are* to blame; Neither JOHN nor I *am* to blame; Neither YOU nor I *am* to blame.

As to Number.

340. If the subject denotes one, the verb should be in the singular number.

(See foregoing examples.)

341. If the subject denotes more than one, the verb should be in the plural number; as, We *are*, They *move*, They *were rescued*, John and James *are* here.

Exceptions and Peculiarities.

1. A collective noun in the singular number may be plural in meaning, *i. e.*, instead of saying the *members of the congregation*, *the individuals of the jury*, *the men composing the army*, *etc.*, we may use the words, *the congregation*, *the jury*, *the army*, *etc.* A verb which refers for its subject to a collective noun so used should agree with the *meaning*, not the *form* of its subject; as, The CONGREGATION *were* delighted; The JURY *have rendered* their verdict.

2. The form of the subject may be plural but its meaning singular.

In such case the verb should be singular; as, Young's NIGHT THOUGHTS *is* an excellent poem.

3. Two or more singular nouns or pronouns connected by *and* usually require the verb to be in the plural number; as, JOHN and JAMES *have recited*. To this, however, there are some exceptions:

(a) If the nouns are but different names for the same object, the verb should be singular; as,

> A LAGGARD in love and a DASTARD in war
> *Was* to wed the fair Ellen of brave Lochinvar.

(b) If the connected nouns name different parts of a compound whole to which the verb refers, the verb should be singular; as, A BLOCK and TACKLE *was used*. BREAD and MILK *was given* to all.

(c) If the connected nouns are taken distributively, the verb should be singular; as, Every MAN, WOMAN, and CHILD *was saved*.

Rem.—Sometimes *with*, or *as well as*, is used as a substitute for *and*. When this is the case, many good writers use the verb in the plural number: as, The KING, *with* the LORDS and COMMONS *constitute* our government; POMPEY *as well as* CÆSAR *were* great men;

> The spacious FIRMAMENT on high,
> *With* all the blue ethereal SKY,
> And spangled HEAVENS, a shining frame,
> *Their* great original proclaim.
>
> —ANDREW MARVEL.

This usage is condemned by most grammarians, however, and is probably no more defensible than the use of plural pronouns in the following sentences: Every one should study *their* lessons; Every one must judge of *their* own feelings.

4. If two or more singular nouns or pronouns connected by *or* or *nor* are used as the subject of a verb, the verb should be singular; as, Either JOHN or JAMES *was* there. If, however, one of the connected nouns is plural, the verb must be plural; as, Neither JOHN nor his BROTHERS *were* to blame.

Exercises in Parsing Finite Verbs.

The Steps.

1. Classify the word.
2. State its modifications.
3. Tell its construction—*i.e.* state to what it relates for its subject.
4. Give the principal parts of irregular verbs.

Models.

I.

Sentence.

Character *is* a mirror, which *reflects* in after life the images first presented to it.

Parsing.

IS:

1. *Classification.*—Verb, irregular, intransitive, simple.
2. *Modifications.*—Ordinary, active, indicative, present, third, singular.
3. *Construction.*—XII., relates to the noun *character* for its subject.
4. *Principal Parts—am, was, being, been.*

REFLECTS:

1. *Classification.*—Verb, regular, transitive, simple.
2. *Modifications*—Ordinary, active, indicative, present, third, singular.
3. *Construction.*—XII., relates to the pronoun *which* for its subject.

Sentence.

Humility lodged in a worthy mind *is* always *attended* with a certain homage, which no haughty soul *can purchase.*

Parsing.

IS ATTENDED:

1. *Classification.*—Verb, regular, transitive, complex, of which *attended* is the principal verb and *is* is auxiliary.
2. *Modifications.*—Ordinary, passive, indicative, present, third, singular.

3. *Construction.*—XII., relates to the noun *humility* for its subject.

CAN PURCHASE:

1. *Classification.*—Verb, regular, transitive, complex, of which *purchase* is the principal verb and *can* is auxiliary.

2. *Modifications.*—Ordinary, active, potential, present, (third), (singular).

3. *Construction.*—XII., relates to the noun *soul* for its subject.

Sentence.

I *am trying* to do my duty in the sphere which it appears to be my lot to occupy.

Parsing.

AM TRYING:

1. *Classification.*—Verb, regular, transitive, complex, of which *trying* is the principal verb and *am* is auxiliary.

2. *Modifications.*—Progressive, active, indicative, present, first, singular.

3. *Construction.*—XII., relates to the pronoun *I* for its subject.

CHAPTER XV.

INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPIALS.

342. The Infinitive Mode is that form of the verb which in modern English is generally preceded by the sign **to,** and expresses the act, state, etc., without limitation of person or number.

343. The Participial Mode is that form of the verb which never is preceded by the sign **to,** and expresses the act, state, etc., without limitation of person or number.

Infinitives.

344. Every infinitive has a *subject*, expressed or implied ; as, 'We wish *him* to go,' 'To succeed was impossible.'

The subject of *to go* is *him*. The subject of *to succeed*, by implication, is *person*, or some other word.

REM.—It is never neccessary to supply the subject of an infinitive in order to dispose of the infinitive.

345. Though the form of an infinitive is not affected by the person or number of its subject, the subject is considered a modifier of the infinitive. To illustrate: the expression, 'To parse this word is impossible,' is general, and probably untrue ; while, 'For *me* to parse this word is impossible,' is particular, and may be true.

346. The subject of an infinitive is frequently introduced by the expletive **for,** which in such cases is not a preposition but a conjunction.

347. **To,** the sign of the infinitive, was formerly a preposition, but is now used before the infinitive without reference to the relation of the latter.

REM. 1.—Grammarians insist that nothing should come between the infinitive and its sign. If, however, an appeal be taken from dictum to usage, it will be found that the rule is respected by comparatively few of the great English or American authors, living or dead.

REM. 2.—Colloquially, an infinitive after **to,** when it is a repetition of a preceding infinitive, is often omitted; as, I don't go because I don't wish *to*.

348. As to tense, the infinitive has but two general forms, called, respectively, the *Present*, and the *Perfect*, distinguished from each other by the use of the auxiliary verb, *have*, in the perfect, and its absence in the present.

349. In the case of verbs which can be used in the active voice, the number of different infinitive forms is four, which, in the ordinary style, are shown below:

	ACTIVE.	PASSIVE.
PRESENT,	*to sing.*	*to be sung.*
PERFECT,	*to have sung.*	*to have been sung.*

In the progressive style the forms are as follows:

	ACTIVE.	PASSIVE.*
Present,	to be singing.	to be being sung.
Perfect,	to have been singing.	to have been being sung.

* NOTE.—The passive progressive infinitives are rarely employed.

350. The present infinitive expresses the act, state, etc., without reference to time or completeness. The perfect infinitive expresses the act, state, etc., as completed at the time denoted by the finite verb in connection with which the infinitive is used. Thus, in the sentence, 'The class was to recite,' *to recite* gives no idea of time or of the completeness of the act; but in the sentence, 'The class was to have

recited,' *to have recited* denotes that the act was to be completed prior to the time referred to by *was*.

351. When the present infinitive is the object, or the factitive object, of *bid*, *make*, *need*, *hear*, *let*, *see*, *feel*, *dare*, *have*, *help*, *find*, and equivalents of *see*, or modifies the intransitive verb, *please*, the sign *to* is usually omitted from the ordinary active form, and *to be* from the passive voice and the progressive style; as, 'Bid him [to] *come*,' 'We had him [to be] punished,' 'We heard the board-nails [to be] *snapping* in the frost.'

Rem. 1.—The perfect infinitive may, or may not retain the sign in such constructions, but examples of either case are not numerous.

Rem. 2.—Some authors state that the sign *to* is omitted after the verbs *bid*, *make*, *need*, *have*, etc. This rule is open to criticism:

1. *To* is seldom omitted when the infinitive follows any of these verbs in the passive voice; and when it is so omitted, the ellipsis is not on account of the verb which the preposition follows, but to save needless repetition, as in the sentence quoted in Remark 3.

2. When *have* denotes duty, necessity, or the like, and when *need* is not modified by an adverb of negation, the sign of the objective infinitive is retained; as, (1) We had to study. (2) You need to study.

Rem. 3.—The sign is often omitted to avoid needless repetitions; as, "It is better to be a slave and [to] *live* than [to] *be* a king and [to] *die*." Also, when the infinitive is the object of a preposition, *to* is sometimes omitted; as, I will do any thing BUT *sing*.

352. The subject of an infinitive, if a pronoun having that form, should be in the objective case. If the subject be the third, singular, feminine, of the personal pronoun, it should be in the possessive case. (Why?) If the subject is a noun, or any other pronoun wanting the objective case, it should be in the nominative case.

353. The present infinitive, without the sign *to*, is combined with *do*, *can* *may*, *must*, *shall*, and *will*, to form many of the tenses of the finite verbs; as, 'I *shall* [to] *study*,' 'We *must* [to] *go*,' etc.

Rem. 1.—When so used the infinitive and auxiliary are treated as a complex word of which the infinitive is the principal verb.

Rem. 2.—In the case of all verbs except *to be*, the present infinitive without its sign is always the same in form as the first, singular, indicative, active.

Participles.

354. As to tense, participles are of three kinds, the *Present*, the *Past*, and the *Perfect;* and the participles of any verb which can be used in the passive voice are further distinguished as active and passive, thus making six forms, as follows :

	ACTIVE.	PASSIVE.
PRESENT,	*singing*,	*being sung.*
PAST,	*sung*,	*been sung.*
PERFECT,	*having sung*,	*having been sung.*

355. The present and the perfect participles always have subjects, expressed or implied, but the past participle never has a subject expressed. (Perhaps, logically, one in implied.)

356. As already stated, the present participle is combined with the verb **be** to form the progressive style ; and the past participle is combined with the verb **have** to form the perfect tenses.

Rem.—When used in such combinations, the participle is not parsed separately, but is considered the principal verb.

357. When a participle is used in any other way than that mentioned in the last paragraph, it is said to be used participially. The *perfect* participles are always used participially, but the *past passive* participle never is. The other participles are used either participially or in combinations When the *past active* participle is used participially, it is always passive in meaning.

358. A participle may become a participial noun by the use of a preceding article or adjective. If the participle has an object, the preposition *of* is commonly used to show the new relation which the object assumes when the participle ceases to be a verb and becomes a noun ; as, '*Whipping* [*verb*] children is barbarous' ; changed, 'The whipping [*noun*] of children is barbarous.'

359. Many authors insist that a participle *must* not be modified by an adjective—*i. e.*, that when modified by an adjective, the participle

becomes a noun, and if transitive *must* be followed by a preposition. Usage, however, does not appear to be uniform. Thus, we find good writers who would say, "The *reading* many books will not make one wise." Commonly, however, especially among modern writers, the word *of* would be inserted after *reading*.

360. A participle may become a participial adjective; as, 'A running stream,' 'An educated man.'

Rem.—Participial nouns and adjectives must not be confused with participles having the constructions of nouns and adjectives.

361. The subject of a participle, if a noun, or if a pronoun having that form, should take the possessive case.

362. Many authors teach that infinitives and participles are not verbs. It is said that the infinitive is a noun, and that the participle is a distinct part of speech. There are many reasons for rejecting these views.

1. Both express action, being, etc.
   (What is a verb?)
2. Both may have subjects.
   (Do nouns?)
3. Both may be transitive, and govern objects.
   (May nouns?)
4. Both may always be modified by adverbs.
   (Nouns may sometimes be, but are not often.)
5. Both are used as essential parts of finite verbs; hence,

(a) If the participle were not a verb, no form of which the participle is the base could be a verb. Therefore, no verb could have the passive voice, or a perfect tense in the active voice. (Why?)

(b) If the infinitive were not a verb, no verb could have a primary tense in the active voice, potential mode. (Why?) Nor the future tense, indicative mode. (Why?)

NOTE.—The list of objections to the doctrine that infinitives and participles are not verbs may be extended indefinitely. Let the student offer others. Any reason which may be urged in favor of calling the infinitive a noun, would go to prove

that the pronoun is a noun, or that the infinitive is a pronoun. It should be borne in mind that the etymological use of a word determines what part of speech it is; the syntactical use (*i. e.* construction) never does.

Rem. 1.—Some authors call the present participle "the infinitive in ing," or "the gerund," when it is used in certain constructions possible for a noun; as, 'I enjoy reading,' 'John delights in driving horses,' 'Depriving you of pleasure gives me pain,' etc.

Rem. 2.—Neither infinitives nor participles are adequately defined in the dictionaries, though a little improvement has been made upon the definitions given in Webster's "Unabridged." Whenever it is practicable, the "International," "Century," and "Imperial," should be consulted by the student in preparing for a recitation on these forms of the verb.

HOLBROOK'S REMARK.—"Both the infinitive and participle are infinite, because both are unlimited by person and number. Both are participial, because both partake of the nature of nouns, adjectives, or adverbs."

NOTE.—Strictly speaking, infinitives and participles do not "partake of the nature of the nouns, adjectives, or adverbs"; but both may, while retaining the "nature" of verbs, participate in the functions of nouns, adjectives, or adverbs.

Constructions.

363. Infinitives and participles do not have person or number.

They merely assume action, being, etc., on the part of their subjects.

These facts make it possible to use them in constructions which are not possible for finite verbs, and prevent their use (except in combinations) in the ordinary constructions of finite verbs.

Construction I.—Subject of a Finite Verb.

Examples.—(1) For me *to return* was impossible. (2) His *studying* so diligently is commendable.

364. Position.—Infinitives and participles in this construction usually precede the verbs of which they are subjects, but may follow them; as, (1) It IS impossible *to return.* (2) I believe that his taking the horse without permission will be pardoned more readily than WILL BE his *over-driving* the animal.

Rem.—When an infinitive is the subject of a verb in the passive voice, the subject of the infinitive may precede, and the infinitive follow the verb; as, The LAKE is thought *to be* deep.

Construction II.—Object of a Transitive Verb in the Active Voice.

Examples.—(1) I wish *to return.* (2) He mentioned your *having called.*

365. Position.—Infinitives and participles in this construction usually follow the verbs of which they are the objects, but may precede them; as, (1) *To return,* under the circumstances, he WOULD not UNDERTAKE. (2) Your *mistaking* me for my friend I WILL fully PARDON.

Construction III.—Complement of a Copulative Verb.

Examples.—(1) To save is *to earn* twice. (2) Seeing is *believing.*

366. Position.—Infinitives and participles in this construction follow the copulas of which they are complements.

Rem. 1.—Care must be taken to discriminate between present participles in this construction and those used in combination with the

verb be to form the progressive style. Thus, in the example given, observe that *is believing* does not express an act, but that it asserts that *seeing* is identical with *believing*.

Rem. 2. – Some authors teach that in such expressions as. "We are to go next week," *to go* is not the complement of are, but that *expecting* or *intending* is understood after *are*, and that the infinitive is the object of the verb in the progressive style. (See Holbrook's Grammar, Art. 893.)

The thought, however, often requires the insertion of the past participle; and it is often impossible to determine whether the past or the present participle is implied. Thus, in the sentence quoted, we cannot determine whether the meaning is, 'We are expecting to go next week,' or, 'We are expected to go next week.' If the past participle is inserted the verb is in the passive voice, and the infinitive, to be its object, must also be its subject.

This construction is perplexing, and "the authorities" fail to throw much light upon it. The Century Dictionary says: "An infinitive with to after be forms a sort of future, with a certain implication of obligation; thus, he is to come, they were to appear, she would have been to blame or to be blamed"—an explanation which makes clear what we already understand, but which affords no great assistance in parsing the infinitive.

What we have to deal with are really unperfected forms very similar to certain mode and tense forms which have had places assigned to them in the conjugations. Thus:

(1) We are to go = We shall [to] go, or, We must [to] go.

(2) They were to go = They would [to] go, or, They might [to] go.

(3) Where am I to sit? = Where shall I [to] sit? or, Where must I [to] sit?

In most cases, some form of *have* may be substituted for *be* without greatly changing the sense. Thus,

(1) We are to go = We have to go.

(2) He is to go = He has to go.

(3) Where am I to sit? = Where have I to sit?

The verb *be* is intransitive, however, while *have* is transitive. In my own classes, I have followed the practice of supplying an assumed ellipsis after the verb *be*. Thus, (1) He is to go = He is [expected] to go. (2) Where am I to sit? = Where am I [expected] to sit? (3) We were to play ball to-day = We were [expecting or intending] to play ball to-day; or, We were [expected] to play ball to-day. In dealing with sentences like the third, the student is permitted to disclaim any responsibility for ambiguity, but is required to dispose of the infinitive disjunctively.

Construction IV.—Subject of a Not-finite Verb.

(a) *Subject of an Infinitive.*

Examples.—(1) We believed *to return* TO BE impossible, or, We believed it TO BE impossible *to return*. (2) He thought *studying* Greek TO BE a waste of time.

367. Position.—Participles in this construction precede the infinitives of which they are subjects; infinitives may either precede or follow.

(b) *Subject of a Participle.*

Examples.—(1) We had no doubt of its BEING impossible *to return*. (2) "The boy had hope of his *having lost* the money BEING FORGIVEN."

368. Position.—Participles in this construction precede the participles of which they are subjects; infinitives may either precede or follow.

Rem.—In general a sentence containing a participle in this construction is awkward and, when spoken, ambiguous. In the example given, change *being forgiven* to *would be forgiven* and note the improvement.

Construction V.—Absolute.

(b) *By Exclamation.*

Examples.—(1) "To die,—to sleep,—*to sleep!*—perchance to dream!—aye, there's the rub." (2) "*Shivering!* Hark! He mutters brokenly now."

(c) *By Pleonasm.*

Examples.—(1) *To die,* it is a horrible thought. (2) *Running* up stairs—exercise like that is too violent.

(d) *By Inscription.*

Examples.—(1) | *To Let.* | (2) | *Sold.* |

NOTE.—The words are supposed to be announcements on placards.

(f) *By Response.*

Examples.—(1) "What do you advise now?" "*To return,* if possible." (2) "By what occupation do you make a livelihood?" "*Selling* papers."

Rem.—It is unnecessary to supply other words in parsing *to return* and *selling.*

(g) *By Interrogation.*

Examples.—(1) "Do you know what I intend to do now?" "*To return.*" (2) "Do you know what occupation I expect to engage in?" "*Selling* papers?"

(j) *Adverbial—with or without a participle.*

Examples.

1. With a Participle.—(1) *To proceed* BEING impossible, we remained where we were; (2) *Talking* aloud HAVING BEEN FORBIDDEN, we conversed in whispers.

2. Without a Participle.—(1) *To speak* plainly, you are in fault; (2) Strictly *speaking,* there was no battle.

Construction VI.—In Apposition.

(a) *In Apposition with a Part of Speech, or something having the construction of a Part of Speech.*

Examples.

1. Principal term a Noun.—(1) This is my PURPOSE, *to practice* economy. (2) One feature of the PROGRAM—*ringing* the bell so violently—should be omitted from future performances.

2. Principal term a Pronoun.—(1) YOU, young, ardent, patriotic—soon *to shed* your blood, if need be, in cause of God and country—know full well what that word honor means. (2) "Yes, it was HE, alive and well, *bringing* joy and peace to those who long had mourned for him as dead."

3. Principal term an Adjective.—(1) Poor health has made him FRETFUL—*disposed* to complaining impatience; (2) All things are READY—suitably *provided* and *arranged*.

NOTE.—In the first example, to be is omitted before disposed, because the infinitive is in apposition with the factitive object of made. Were fretful omitted, the infinitive would be the factitive object of made, and to be would be omitted in accordance with the principle stated in Article 332; and the sentence would read, *Poor health made him disposed to complaining impatience.*

4. Principal term an Infinitive.—"TO DIE,—*to sleep*,—to sleep!—perchance *to dream*."

5. Principal term a Participle.—Her ambassador BEING RECOGNIZED—*acknowledged* and *accepted* by the government, England cannot refuse to receive ours.

NOTE.—I know of no good example of a participle in apposition with an infinitive, or of an infinitive in apposition with a participle.

6. Principal term an Adverb.—(1) He spoke AUDIBLY—*to be heard*. (2) He proceeded OSTENTATIOUSLY—*making* a vain display.

Construction VII.—Object of a Preposition.

Examples.

1. Principal term a Noun.—(1) I can recommend NOTHING but *to return.* (2) I have lost all HOPE of his *paying* me the money.

2. Principal term an Adjective.—(1) I am ANXIOUS for him *to return.* (2) We are HOPEFUL of his *doing* better.

3. Principal term a Verb.—(1) "What WENT you out for *to see?*" (2) We WAIT for his *returning.*

NOTE.—The use of an infinitive as the object of for—as shown in the first example—is now obsolete except in the solemn style.

4. Principal term an Adverb.—He spoke too *rapidly* for me *to understand.*

NOTE.—I know of no good example of a participle in this construction.

Construction VIII.—Modifying a Noun, Pronoun, Adjective, Verb, or Adverb, without a Preposition to show the relation.

(a) *Modifying a Noun or Pronoun attributively, to describe or specify.*

Examples.

1. Principal term a Noun.—(1) A DETERMINATION *to succeed* often makes one successful. (2) The MAN *standing* by the window is my friend.

2. Principal term a Pronoun.—HE *being* willing, why should you object.

NOTE.—I know of no good example of an infinitive modifying a pronoun in this manner.

(c) *Modifying an Adjective, Verb, or Adverb.*

Examples.

1. Principal term an Adjective.—(1) Apples are GOOD *to eat.* (2) He was very ANXIOUS *concerning* his son's health.

NOTE.—Many authors treat *concerning*, *regarding*, *respecting*, *touching*, etc., as prepositions, when used as the equivalents of *in regard to*, *in respect to*, *in relation to*, etc. The Century Dictionary speaks of them as "*quasi*-prepositions." There is no question, however, as to their being primarily participles, and I have preferred to treat them as such in parsing and analysis.

2. Principal term a Verb.—(1) He RETURNED *to make* an apology. (2) He STOOD *gazing* on the scene.

Factitive Object.—(1) We MADE him [ ] *sing*. (2) He CONSIDERED your succeeding his *failing*.

3. Principal term an Adverb.—I am old-fashioned ENOUGH *to admire* Lord Bacon.

NOTE.—I know of no good example of a participle used in this manner.

Exercises in Parsing Infinitives and Participles.

The Steps.

1. Classify the word.
2. State its modifications.
3. State its construction.
4. If its subject is expressed, mention it.
5. If irregular, or redundant, give its principal parts.

Models.

I.

Sentence.

To do this work is impossible.

Parsing.

TO DO:

1. *Classification.*—Verb, irregular, transitive, simple.
2. *Modifications.*—Ordinary, active, infinitive, present.
3. *Construction.*—I., subject of the verb *is*.
4. *Principal parts.*—*Do, did, doing, done.*

II.

Sentence.

We do not wish John *to study* law.

Parsing.

TO STUDY :

1. *Classification.*—Verb, regular, transitive, simple.
2. *Modifications.*—Ordinary, active, infinitive, present.
3. *Construction.*—II., object of the verb *wish.*
4. *Subject.*—*John.*

III.

Sentence.

The answer to this question is *to be found* in the nature of the mind itself.

Parsing.

TO BE FOUND :

1. *Classification.*—Verb, regular, transitive, complex.
2. *Modifications.*—Ordinary, passive, infinitive, present.
3. *Construction.*—III., the complement of the verb *is.*

IV.

Sentence.

To rescue this circle of studies from inadequate conceptions, and to lay the ground for a true idea of them, I have proposed to term them Homerology.

Parsing.

TO RESCUE :

1. *Classification.*—Verb, regular, transitive, simple.
2. *Modifications.*—Ordinary, active, infinitive, present.
3. *Construction.*—VIII. (c), modifying the verb *have proposed.*

V.

Sentence.

We saw three geese *flying* northward.

Parsing.

[TO BE] FLYING:

1. *Classification.*—Verb, irregular, intransitive, complex.
2. *Modifications.*—Progressive, active, infinitive, present.
3. *Construction.*—II., object of the verb *saw.*
4. *Subject.*—*Geese.*
5. *Principal parts.*—*Fly, flew, flying, flown.*

VI.

Sentence.

It is difficult for the most cool-headed impostor long *to personate* an enthusiast without in some degree *believing* what he is so eager *to have believed.*

Parsing.

TO PERSONATE:

1.—*Classification.*—Verb, regular, transitive, simple.
2.—*Modifications.*—Ordinary, active, infinitive, present.
3.—*Construction.*—I., subject of *is.*
4.—*Subject.*—*Impostor.*

BELIEVING:

1.—*Classification.*—Verb, regular, transitive, simple.
2.—*Modifications.*—Ordinary, active, participial, present.
3.—*Construction.*—VII., object of the preposition *without,* modifying the verb *to personate.*

TO HAVE:

1.—*Classification.*—Verb, irregular, transitive, simple.
2.—*Modifications.*—Ordinary, active, infinitive, present.
3.—*Construction.*—VIII. (c), modifying the adjective *eager.*
4.—*Principal parts.*—*Have, had, having, had.*

[TO BE] BELIEVED:

1.—*Classification.*—Verb, regular, transitive, complex.
2.—*Modifications.*—Ordinary, passive, infinitive, present.
3.—*Construction.*—II., object of the verb *to have.*

VII.

Sentence.

Having been informed of the nature of the accusation, he desired to meet his traducers face to face.

Parsing.

HAVING BEEN INFORMED:

1. *Classification.*—Verb, regular, transitive, complex.
2. *Modifications.*—Ordinary, passive, participial, perfect.
3. *Construction.*—V. (j) absolute adverbial, modifying *desired.*

VIII.

Sentence.

An 't were not for thy hoary beard,
Such hand as Marmion's had not spared
To cleave the Douglas' head!

Parsing.

TO CLEAVE:

1. *Classification.*—Verb, redundant, transitive, simple.
2. *Modifications.*—Ordinary, active, infinitive, present.
3. *Construction.*—II., object of the verb *had spared.*
4. *Principal parts.*—*Cleave; clave, cleft* or *clove; cleaving; cleft* or *cloven.*

Examples for Practice.

State the construction of each infinitive and participle in the following sentences. Supply all omissions, and tell why the words supplied have been omitted. If a subject is expressed, mention it. Parse the italicized words.

1. He chanced to see a bee *hovering* over a flower. 2. Was he not to secure Eubœa against all attacks by sea? 3. Was he not *to make* Bœotia our barrier on the midland side? 4. Was he not to attend with due precaution to the importation of corn? 5. Think how much work

is done by burning coal. 6. *To be*, or not to be,—that is the question. 7. *Bursting* his bonds, he sprung upon the foe. 8. Much I marveled this ungainly fowl *to hear discourse* so plainly. 9. Bid each retainer arm with speed. 10. *Linked* to thy side, through every chance I go. 11. *Taking* balloons as they are, "for better or worse," let us, for once, have an aerial flight. 12. Does the gentleman suppose it is in his power *to exhibit* in Carolina a name so bright as *to produce* envy in my bosom? 13. It is our duty to pity, to support, to defend, and to relieve the oppressed. 14. His care was *to polish* the country by art, as he had protected it by arms. 15. It is useless *to expatiate* upon the beauties of nature to one who is blind. 16. Dryden's page is a natural field, *rising* into inequalities, varied by exuberant vegetation; Pope's is a velvet lawn, shaven by the scythe and leveled by the roller. 17. He woke *to die* mid flame and smoke. 18. I had never heard a servant *scolded*, nor even suddenly, passionately, or in any severe manner blamed. 19. As you pass the open window, you hear whole platoons of high-pitched voices *discharging* words of two or three syllables. 20. The voice of the officer in command is heard *reproving* some raw recruit whose vocal musket hung fire.

21. I speak not *to disprove* what Brutus spoke,
But here am I *to speak* what I do know.

22. No farther seek his merits to disclose,
Or *draw* his frailties from their dread abode.

23. To do aught good never will be our task,
But ever *to do* ill our sole delight.

24. First fear his hand, its skill *to try*,
Amid the chords bewildered laid.

25. Is there not rain enough in the sweet heavens
To wash this crimson hand as white as snow?

26. Heard ye those loud complaining waves,
That shook Cecropia's pillared state?

Saw ye the mighty from their graves
Look up, and *tremble* at her fate ?

27. Come, Antony, and young Octavius, come,
Revenge yourselves alone on Cassius;
For Cassius is aweary of the world,
Hated by one he loves, braved by his brother.
Checked like a bondman, all his faults *observed*,
Set in a note-book, learned and conned by rote,
To cast into his teeth.

28. Within our beds awhile we heard,
The wind that round the gables roared;
With now and then a ruder shock,
Which made our very bedsteads *rock*.
We heard the loosened clapboards *tost*,
The board-nails *snapping* in the frost;
And on us, through the unplastered wall,
Felt the light-sifted snowflakes *fall*.

CHAPTER XVI.

CONSTRUCTIONS OF PREPOSITIONS.

Construction IX.—Showing an Adjective or an Adverbial Relation.

Examples.—The top *of* the house, The way *to* town, The horse ran *through* the village.

Rem.—This is the chief construction of prepositions. They may, however, occasionally have other constructions, such as *apposition*, *absolute*, *etc.*

369. Position.—A preposition usually follows the principal term and precedes the modifier, but this order is not invariable.

1. Both terms may follow the preposition; as, *From* CHICAGO we WENT to St. Louis; The house *at* WHICH we STOPPED.

2. Both terms may precede the preposition; as, The house THAT we STOPPED *at;* The man WHOM we SPOKE *to;* The man WHO WAS SPOKEN *to;* We wish HIM to BE SPOKEN *to;* HIS BEING SPOKEN *to* was the cause of his conduct.

Rem. 1.—Some authors teach that a sentence should not end with a preposition; and I have seen the statement, that "A preposition is not a good word to end a sentence *with*"; but few writers and speakers submit to be bound by this senseless rule.

Rem. 2.—The last three examples illustrate the fact that a word

may be the object of a preposition and the subject of a verb at the same time. In other words, the subject of a verb may also be an adverbial modifier of the verb. The *subject* relation controls in regard to case.

Exercises in Parsing Prepositions.

The Steps.

1. Classify the word.
2. State its construction—*i. e.* state that it shows the adjective or adverbial relation of its object (*naming it*) to the principal term (*naming it*).

Note.—In parsing, the *base* of the object of a preposition is called the object.

Models.

I.

Sentence.

Yet not *to* thine eternal resting-place
Shalt thou retire alone, nor couldst thou wish
Couch more magnificent.

Parsing.

TO:

1. *Classification.*—Preposition, of place—motion to, simple.
2. *Construction.*—IX., showing the adverbial relation of the noun *resting-place* to the verb *shalt retire.*

II.

Sentence.

I have not seen him *since* Christmas.

Parsing.

SINCE:

1. *Classification.*—Preposition, of time, simple.
2. *Construction.*—IX., showing the adverbial relation of the noun *Christmas* to the verb *have seen.*

CHAPTER XVII.

CONSTRUCTION OF CONJUNCTIONS.

Construction X.—Connecting Co-ordinate Terms.

Examples.—JOHN *and* JAMES study dilligently, *but* CHARLES *and* HENRY are indolent; You MAY GO *or* STAY; Neither JOHN *nor* JAMES is to blame.

370. Position.—Conjunctions in this construction usually stand between the terms they connect.

Construction XI.—Introducing a sentence or a member of a sentence—not as an expletive.

Examples.—*If* John comes, I will inform you; *Though* his opportunities were great, he did not improve them.

371. Position.—Conjunctions in this construction usually precede the terms they introduce.

Exercises in Parsing Conjunctions.

The Steps.

1. Classify the word.
2. State its construction.
   - (a) If a coördinative conjunction, name the terms it connects
   - (b) If a subordinative conjunction, tell what it introduces.

Models.

Sentence.

I.

On a sudden, open fly,

With impetuous recoil and jarring sounds,
The infernal doors; *and* on their hinges grate
Harsh thunder.—MILTON.

Parsing.

AND:

1. *Classification.*—Conjunction, coördinative, copulative, simple.
2. *Construction.*—Connects the two sentences, *On a sudden, open fly, with impetuous recoil and jarring sounds, the infernal doors,* and *on their hinges grate harsh thunder.*

Sentence. II.

They set a strong guard, *lest* any should escape.

Parsing.

LEST:

1. *Classification.*—Conjunction, subordinative, of end or purpose, simple.
2. *Construction.*—XI., introducing the sentence, *any should escape.*

Models for Parsing Interjections.

Sentence. I.

Ah! who can tell how hard it is to climb
The steep where Fame's proud temple shines afar.
—BEATTIE.

Parsing.

AH:

1. *Classification.*—Interjection, of sadness, simple.
2. *Construction.*—VI. (b), absolute by exclamation.

Sentence. II.

O, it is excellent
To have a giant's strength, but it is tyrannous
To use it as a giant.—SHAKSPERE.

Parsing.

O:

1. *Classification.*—Interjection, of earnestness, simple.
2. *Construction.*—VI. (h), absolute as an introductory expletive.

CHAPTER XVIII.

SENTENTIAL ANALYSIS.

I. Preliminary Definitions.

372. A Sentence is a word, or combination of words, consisting at least of a verb and its expressed or implied subject; as, (1) Go; (2) I write; (3) The boys recite well; (4) The man sitting by the window is the one I wish to see; (5) John and James study and recite well; (6) All men are created equal, and the Declaration of Independence affirms it.

Remark.—To say that a sentence "is a thought expressed in words," is to define the term as used in logic—the science of the formal laws of thought. Grammar has to do with language, and is concerned with the thought expressed by a sentence, so far only as the thought may aid in determining the relation of the parts of the sentence. If a sentence were a thought, 'John shut the door,' and 'The door was shut by John,' would be the same sentence, as the thought of the two expressions is the same.

373. An Element of a sentence is a word or combination of words entering with a certain degree of unity into the structure of the sentence.

374. To Analyze a sentence is to classify it, determine and classify its elements and tell their respective relations.

Rem.—Parsing properly embraces analysis as well as what is commonly called parsing, the distinction turning on whether a sentence or a word is made the unit. To parse a word is to classify it, state its modifications, and tell its constructions. In parsing or "analyzing" a sentence, we first consider the sentence as whole, then its parts or elements.

II. Sentences Classified.

375. As to mode of verb, sentences are either *Complete* or *Abridged.*

376. A Complete Sentence is one whose verb is finite.

377. An Abridged Sentence is one whose verb is an infinitive or a participle.

Rem.—In the following definitions complete sentences will be spoken of simply as sentences. When an abridged sentence is meant, the adjective will be used.

378. As to structure, sentences are *Simple, Complex, Compound,* or *Partial Compound.*

379. A Simple Sentence is one that contains but one finite verb and its simple or complex subject.

Example.—All men are created equal.

380. A Complex Sentence is one that contains a subordinate sentence.

Examples.—(1) That all men are created equal is true ; (2) I gave the book to the man who called for it.

381. A Subordinate Sentence is one that forms a part of another sentence ; as, *All men are created equal,* and *Who called for it,* in the foregoing examples.

382. With reference to its subordinate sentence, the entire complex sentence is called the *Principal Sentence.*

383. Most authors and teachers are accustomed to regard the principal sentence as that part of the complex sentence which is not the subordinate sentence; but that cannot be the case in the following examples: (1) *That all men are created equal* is true; (2) I believe *that all men are created equal;* (3) His words were, "*All men are created equal.*"

The advantage of regarding the entire complex sentence as the principal sentence was, I think, first seen by Dr. Holbrook. (See his Complete Grammar.)

384. A Compound Sentence is one that consists of two or more sentences of equal rank.

Examples.—(1) John went to town but Henry remained at home; (2) That all men are created equal is true, and the Declaration of Independence affirms it.

385. The first one of the equal sentences of a compound sentence is sometimes called the Leading Member; the second is called the Coördinate Member. If the compound sentence is made up of more than two sentences of equal rank, those which follow the first are referred to as the First Coördinate Member, the Second Coördinate Member, etc.

Rem.—Any, or all, of the members of a compound sentence may, or may not, be connected by conjunctions. A conjunction may be used to connect the last two members only. When the conjunction is omitted, it is unnecessary to supply it in the analysis.

386. A Partial Compound Sentence is one whose subject or predicate, or both, is compound.

Examples.—(1) John and James study diligently; (2) John studies diligently and recites well; (3) John and James study diligently and recite well.

387. As to the nature of the thought expressed, sentences are *Declarative*, *Imperative*, *Interrogative*, or *Exclamatory*.

388. A Declarative Sentence is one that makes a declaration.

Example.—John studies diligently.

389. An Imperative Sentence is one whose verb is in the imperative mode.

Example.—John, study diligently.

390. An Interrogative Sentence is one that asks a question.

Example.—Does John study diligently?

391. An Exclamatory Sentence is one that expresses strong emotion.

Example.—(1) Oh John, study diligently. (2) "Lord, how are they increased that trouble me."

Directions.—Classify the following sentences:

1. Man is the creature of interest and ambition. 2. Such a secret can be safe nowhere. 3. What, sir, was the conduct of the South during the revolution? 4. The plains of South Carolina drank up the most precious blood of her citizens. 5. The right honorable gentleman called me an "unimpeached traitor." 6. There does not seem to be much relevancy in what you have said. 7. Such a man may be simple and rough, but he can not be vulgar. 8. While the union lasts we have high, exciting, gratifying prospects spread out before us, for us and our children. 9. I don't know which burglar, but I hear some one moving around. 10. To me comes the brakeman, and seating himself on the arm of the seat, says: "I went to church yesterday." 11. Let us think that his dying eyes read a mystic meaning which only the rapt and parting soul may know. 12. "One must do in Rome

as Rome does," Penn said in a dandified manner, jingling some sovereigns in his waistcoat pocket. 13. The face of the innocent sleeper was turned from the murderer, and the beams of the moon resting on the gray locks of his aged temples, showed him where to strike. 14. I told the pretor that the dead man had been my friend, generous and brave ; and I begged that I might bear away the body, to burn it on a funeral pile, and mourn over its ashes.

15. If ye are beasts, then stand there like fat oxen, waiting for the butcher's knife!

16. I see the long procession
Still passing to and fro,
The young heart hot and restless,
And the old subdued and slow.

17. At midnight, in his guarded tent,
The Turk lay dreaming of the hour
When Greece, her knee in suppliance bent,
Should tremble at his power.

18. All day long through Frederick street
Sounded the tread of marching feet;
All day long that free flag tossed
Over the heads of the rebel host.

19. In deeds resplendent and in honor bright,
In high example, shining as the light,
He lives immortal, he who died that night
At Elberon.

20. The workmanship wherewith the gold is wrought,
Adds yet a richness to the richest gold :
Who lacks the art to shape his thought, I hold,
Were little poorer if he lacked the thought.
The statue's slumber were unbroken still
Within the marble, had the hand no skill.
Disparage not the magic touch that gives
The formless thought the grace whereby it lives.

III. Classifications of Elements.

392. As to relative importance, elements are *Principal* or *Subordinate.*

393. The Principal Elements are the essential parts of a sentence. They are the *Subject* and the *Predicate.* All other elements are subordinate.

394. The Subject is that part of a sentence concerning which the act, state, etc., is expressed.

NOTE.—In parsing, the base of the subject is called the subject of the verb.

395. The Predicate is that part of the sentence which expresses the act, state, etc.

NOTE.—The base of the predicate is either a copula and its complement or some verb other than the copula.

Directions.—Determine the subject and predicate of the following sentences. Determine the base of the subject and the base of the predicate.

1. In his council Governor Van Twiller presided with great state and solemnity. 2. So ended the most evenly contested and exciting foot-ball match ever played at Barford Bridge. 3. His star, his love of glory, his doctrine of the immortality of the soul, are all French. 4. How is it that the wind blows? 5. Behold him waist deep in the sand. 6. Yet here was the mayor getting on inexorably. 7. Happy is the man that loves flowers. 8. So long ago as the time of the Greeks it was already known that amber, when rubbed, will attract or draw toward it bits of straw or other light bodies. 9. Now this overdone, or come tardy off, though it make the unskillful laugh, cannot but make the judicious grieve. 10. The sword of Washington! The staff of Franklin! O, sir, what associations are linked in adamant with these names. 11. Right and wrong, justice and crime, exist independently of our country. 12. With this little boy, the only pledge of her departed exciseman, Mrs. Bardwell shrank from the world, and courted the retirement and tranquility of Goswell Street. 13. Mr.

President, it is natural for man to indulge in the illusions of hope. 14. Such, sir, is the testimony of one not to be accused of partiality in his estimate of America.

396. As to the base, or principal term, elements are of three kinds, *First Class*, *Second Class*, and *Third Class*.

397. An Element of the First Class is one whose base is a single word.

Examples.—(1) The man; (2) Some men are industrious; (3) THIS book, *a* DICTIONARY *which I often consult*, is very useful; (4) *A book* WRITTEN *by an American author.*

NOTE.—In the third example, *dictionary* is the base of the element *a dictionary which I often consult.* In the fourth example, *written* is the base of the element *written by an American author.*

398. An Element of the Second Class is one whose base is a preposition and its object or an infinitive.

Examples.—(1) The man BY *the* WINDOW; (2) A book written *by an American author;* (3) A book written BY *an* AUTHOR *who understands his subject;* (4) Houses TO LET; (5) We expect TO GO *home next Thursday.*

NOTE 1.—In the third example, *by author* is the base of the element *by an author who understands his subject.* In the fifth example, *to go* is the base of the element *to go home next Thursday.*

NOTE 2.—The preposition is called the antecedent, and its object is called a subsequent.

399. An Element of the Third Class is one whose base is a sentence.

Examples.—(1) The man *whom you saw* is my father; (2) The book *which you bought of the agent* is here; (3) I know *that books which treat of history are not always interesting.*

NOTE.—In the third sentence, *that books which treat of history are not always interesting* is the object of *know*. It is a complex sentence, since it contains the subordinate sentence, *which treat of history*.

400. As to structure, elements are *Simple*, *Complex*, *Compound*, or *Partial-Compound*.

Elements of the First Class.

401. An element of the first class is **Simple** if it consists of one word, simple, complex, or compound; as, '*Good* boys'; '*Very* tall men'; 'Examples of *this* kind'; '*Many a* man'; '*Thick-warbled* songs.'

402. An element of the first class is **Complex** if its base is modified; as, '*Very* GOOD boys'; 'I bought a VOLUME *of poems*'; 'I saw *the* MAN *who committed the offense*.'

403. An element of the first class is **Compound** if it consists of two or more simple or complex first-class elements of equal rank; as, '*Long* and *difficult* problems'; 'A tree *dead at the top*, and *stripped of most of its branches*, stood by the wayside.'

Elements of the Second Class.

404. An element of the second class is **Simple** if it is either a preposition and its unmodified object or an unmodified infinitive; as, 'He has gone *to town*'; 'I wish *to go*.'

405. An element of the second class is **Complex** if its base or a part of its base is modified; as, 'He has gone TO *his* HOME'; 'He threw the stone *nearly* ACROSS *the river*'; 'I wish TO GO *home now*.'

406. An element of the second class is **Compound** if it

consists of two or more simple or complex second-class elements of equal rank ; as, 'The good knight *without fear* and *without reproach*'; 'I gave him a book *to read* and *to criticise*'; 'He lives in the first house *beyond the bridge* and *on the left side of the road.*'

407. An element of the second class is **Partial-Compound** if it consists of a preposition and its compound object; as, 'He was a man *without hope* or *fear.*'

Elements of the Third Class.

408. An element of the third class is **Simple** if it is a simple sentence.

409. An element of the third class is **Complex** if it is a complex sentence.

410. An element of the third class is **Compound** if it is a compound sentence.

411. An element of the third class is **Partial-Compound** if it is a partial-compound sentence.

412. As to relation, subordinate elements are *Modifying*, *Connective*, *Introductory*, or *Independent.*

413. Modifying Elements are *Adjective*, *Adverbial*, *Objective*, or *Subjective.*

414. An Adjective Element is one that modifies a noun or pronoun.

415. An Adverbial Element is one that modifies something else than a noun or pronoun, or an active transitive verb as its object, or a not-finite verb as its subject.

416. An Objective Element is one that is used as the object of a transitive verb in the active voice.

417. A Subjective Element is one that is used as the subject of a not-finite verb.

418. The Connective Elements are those which connect other elements.

419. The Introductory Elements are those which introduce other elements.

420. An Independent Element is a subordinate element not used to introduce, connect, or modify other elements in other sentence.

Exercises in Diagraming and Analysis.

Models.

I.—*Simple Sentences.*

Sentences.

1. Boys play.
2. Those boys play quietly.
3. Those small boys play very quietly.

Diagrams.

1. Boys / play.

2. boys | Those / play | quietly.

3. boys { Those / small / play | quietly. | very

Explanations.—1. The bracket is used to connect the subject and predicate of a complete sentence. 2. Modifying elements follow the terms which they modify. 3. The vertical bar is used to separate a single modifier from its base. 4. The brace is used to separate two or more modifiers from their common base.

Oral Analysis.

1. *Boys play* is a sentence—simple, declarative. *Boys* is the simple subject, and *play* is the simple predicate.

2. *Those boys play quietly* is a sentence—simple, declarative. *Those boys* is the complex subject: *boys*, the base, is modified by *those*—a simple, adjective element of the first class. Of which sentence also, *play quietly* is the complex predicate: *play*, the base, is modified by *quietly*—a simple adverbial element of the first class.

3. *Those small boys play very quietly* is a sentence—simple, declarative. *Those small boys* is the complex subject: *boys*, the base, is modified by *those* and *small*—two simple adjective elements of the first class. Of which sentence also, *play very quietly* is the complex predicate: *play*, the base, is modified by *very quietly*—a complex, adverbial element of the first class, of which *quietly* is the base, modified by *very*—a simple, adverbial element of the first class.

Directions.—Diagram and analyze the following sentences:

1. The boys ran away very quickly. 2. That man lives here. 3. Why did you go so soon? 4. How quickly the boys ran away. 5. Your new book is ruined. 6. My brother's new book has been soiled. 7. I shall go back immediately. 8. My friend, *John*, is here now. 9. We did not walk all the *way*. 10. Our friends did not stay here long. 11. They went home yesterday. 12. Where do they live? 13. Shall we go home now? 14. He will be here next Monday. 15. The horse ran the first mile very rapidly.

Notes.—1. In the eighth sentence *John* modifies *friend*, and is a simple, adjective element of the first class. 2. In the ninth sentence, *way* modifies *walk*. 3. In the eleventh sentence, *home* and *yesterday* modify *went*.

II.—*Simple Sentences.*

Sentences.

1. John is tall.
2. He walked into the house.
3. He is not my friend.
4. The boy is tall and strong.
5. The house stands between this road and that river.
6. Those small boys and girls are not so quiet always.

1. John
   is—tall.

2. He
   walked | into—house. | the

3. He
   is ⌐friend. | my
   | not

4. boy | The
   tall
   is— and
   strong.

5. house | The
   road | this
   stands | between— and
   river. | that

6. boys
   and
   girls
   Those
   small
   are——quiet | so
   not
   always.

Explanations.—1. The dash is used to separate a copula and its complement (as shown in sentences 1 and 4), and to separate a preposition and its object (as shown in sentences 2 and 5). 2. The combined dash and bar, or dash and half brace, is used to separate a modifier, or modifiers, from the copula (as shown in sentences 3 and 6). 3. The angle is used to connect the bases of compound elements (as shown in sentences 4, 5 and 6), and to connect bases having a common modifier, or common modifiers (as shown in sentences 6 and 7).

Oral Analysis.

(*Sentence No. 1.*)—*John is tall* is a sentence—simple, declarative. *John* is the simple subject, and *is tall* is the simple predicate—*is* being the copula, and *tall* the complement.

2. (*Sentence No. 5.*)—*The house stands between the road and the river* is a sentence—simple, declarative. *The house* is the complex subject: *house*, the base, is modified by *the*—a simple adjective element of the first class. Of which sentence also *stands between the road and the river* is the complex predicate: *stands*, the base, is modified by *between the road and the river*, a partial-compound, adverbial element of the second class, *between* being the antecedent, and *the road and the river* the compound subsequent, the two members of which are complex and are connected by *and*. *Road*, the base of the first member of the subsequent, is modified by *this*—a simple, adjective element, of the first class; and *river*, the base of the second member, is modified by *that*—a simple adjective element of the first class.

3. (*Sentence No. 6.*)—*Those small boys and girls are not so quiet always* is a sentence—partial-compound, declarative. *Those small boys and girls* is the compound subject, the two members of which are connected by *and*, and each modified by *those* and *small*—two simple, adjective elements, of the first class. Of which sentence also *are not so quiet always* is the complex predicate; *are quiet* is the base; *are*, the copula, is modified by *not* and *always*—two simple, adverbial elements of the first class; and *quiet*, the base of the complex complement, is modified by *so*—a simple, adverbial element of the first class.

Directions.—Diagram and analyze the following sentences.

1. The sun's heat is intense. 2. He lives in a beautiful valley. 3. We are enemies no longer. 4. The forest is very dark and gloomy. 5. He passed on through rich meadows and fields of waving grain. 6. Good books and pleasant company are great advantages. 7. We shall go from here to Chicago. 8. Why have you not gone to school to-day? 9. We shall return after attending to this matter. 10. He often walks along this street in the afternoon.

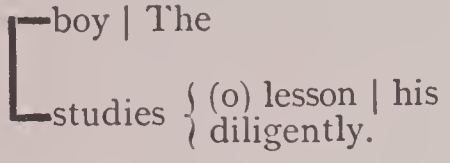
III.—Simple Sentences.

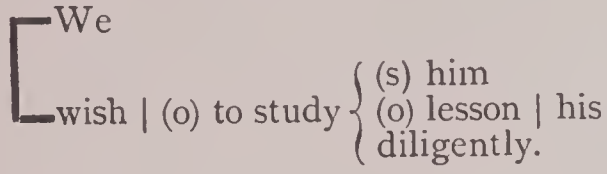
Sentences.

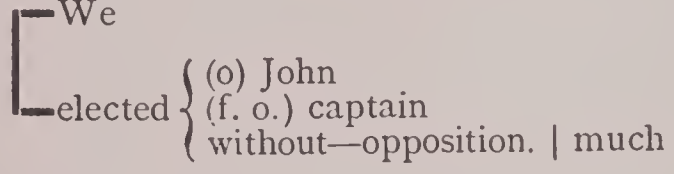
1. The boy studies his lesson diligently.

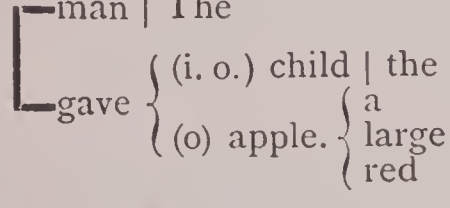
2. We wish him to study his lesson diligently.
3. We elected John captain without much opposition.
4. The man gave the child a large red apple.
5. Our case having been tried, the judge promptly dismissed us.
6. John, our hired man, has gone to town.

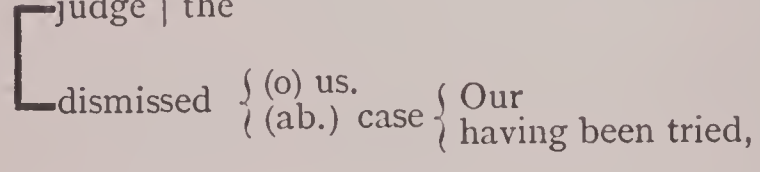
Diagrams.

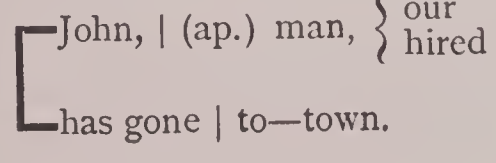
1.


2.


3.


4.


5.


6.


Explanations.—1. An objective element is marked "(*O*);" a subjective element is marked "(*S*);" a factive object is marked "(*f. o.*);" an indirect object is marked "(*i. o.*);" an absolute adverbial element is marked "(*ab.*);" an element in apposition with another is marked "(*ap.*)." 2. An unmarked element following a verb is to be considered as an ordinary adverbial element.

Oral Analysis.

1. (*Sentence No. 2.*) We wish him to study diligently is a sentence —simple, declarative. *We* is the simple subject. Of which sentence also *wish him to study his lessons diligently* is the complex predicate: *wish*, the base, is modified by *him to study diligently*, a complex objective element of the second class—*to study*, the base, being modified by *him*—a simple, subjective element of the first class,—by *diligently*—a simple, adverbial element of the first class,—and by *his lesson*—a complex, objective element of the first class, of which *lesson*, the base, is modified by *his*—a simple, adjective element of the first class.

2. (*Sentence No. 3.*) *We elected John captain without much opposition* is a sentence—simple, declarative. *We* is the simple subject. Of which sentence also, *elected John captain without much opposition* is the complex predicate: *elected*, the base, is modified by *John*—a simple, objective element of the first class,—by *captain*—a simple, adverbial element of the first class,—and by *without much opposition*—a complex, adverbial element of the second class, of which *without opposition* is the base, *without* being the antecedent, and *opposition* the subsequent, modified by *much*—a simple, adjective element of the first class.

Directions.—Diagram and analyze the following sentences:

1. I bought a large apple at the fruit stand. 2. The man wished to stay at our house all night. 3. In the first place, we have no choice. 4. Your father helped the general win this victory. 5. Give your playmates an equal chance to enjoy the game. 6. The study of good books will discipline and improve our minds. 7. Good company will make the poorest meal a feast. 8. Our journeying home has made us very tired. 9. This fact having been established, we easily won our

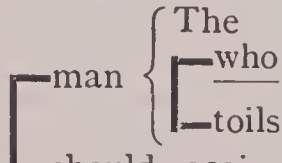
case. 10. The sun being risen, we promptly resumed our march toward the enemy's country.

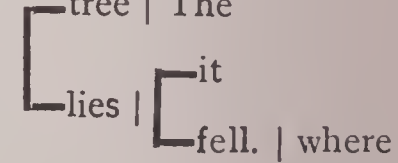
IV.—*Complex Sentences.*

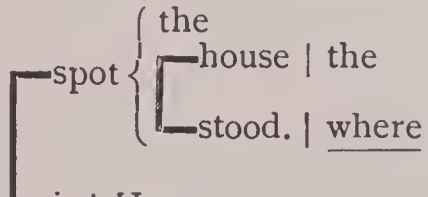
Sentences.

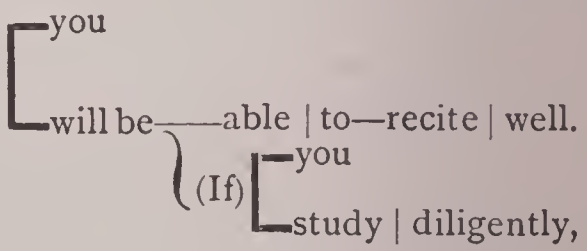
1. The man who toils should receive his reward.
2. The tree lies where it fell.
3. Here is the spot where the house stood.
4. If you study diligently, you will be able to recite well.
5. The lion said, " I do not intend to hurt anybody."
6. Tully's observation was, that friendship improves happiness and abates misery.
7. You ran faster than I did.
8. You ran as fast as I did.
9. He was so honest that all respected him.
10. Take what you want.
11. It is true that I sent for you.
12. There was a man here to see you.

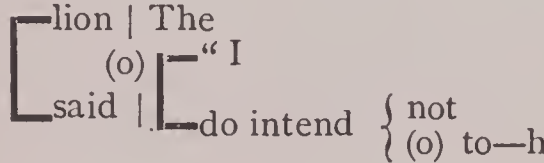
Diagrams.

1.


2.


3.


4.


5.


6. observation | Tully's
   was,— (that) friendship
   improves | (o) happiness
   and
   abates | (o) misery.

7. You
   ran | faster | (than) I
   did. [run]

8. You
   ran | fast | as | I
   did. [run] | as

9. He
   was—honest | so | (that) [persons] all
   respected | (o) him.

10. [you]
    Take | (o) [ ] | You
    want. | (o) what

11. (It) (that) I
    is—true
    sent | for—you.

12. (There) man | a
    was { here
        { to—see | (o) you.

Explanations.—1. Relative pronouns and conjunctive adverbs are underlined to show that they have two functions. 2. Subordinative conjunctions and introductory expletives are enclosed by parentheses. 3. The brackets are used to enclose a word, or words, not expressed in the original but implied (as shown in sentences 7, 8, and 9.) They are also used to indicate an ellipsis when the omitted word, or words, cannot be determined with certainty (as shown in sentence 10.)

Oral Analysis.

1. (*Sentence No. 1.*) *The man who toils should receive his reward* is a sentence—complex, declarative. *The man who toils* is the complex subject: *man*, the base, is modified by *the*—a simple, adjective element of the first class, and is further modified by *who toils*—a simple, adjec-

tive element of the first class. *Who toils* is also a sentence—simple, declarative—of which *who* is the simple subject and also the introductory element: of which subordinate sentence also, *toils* is the simple predicate. Of which principal sentence also *should receive his reward* is the complex predicate: *should receive*, the base, is modified by *his reward*—a complex, objective element of the first class, of which *reward*, the base, is modified by *his*—a simple, adjective element of the first class.

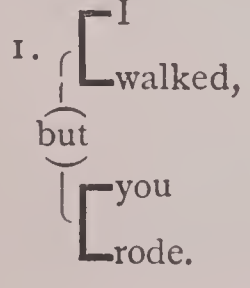
2. (*Sentence No. 11.*)—*It is true that I sent for you* is a sentence—complex, declarative. *It—that I sent for you* is the simple subject, of which *it* is the introductory expletive. *That I sent for you* is also a simple declarative sentence, of which *that* is the introductory element, and *I* is the simple subject. Of which subordinate sentence also *sent for you* is the complex predicate: *sent*, the base, is modified by *for you*—a simple, adverbial element of the second class. Of which principal sentence also *is true* is the simple predicate, *is* being the copula, and *true* the complement.

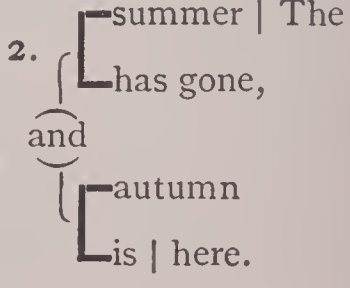
V.—*Compound Sentences.*

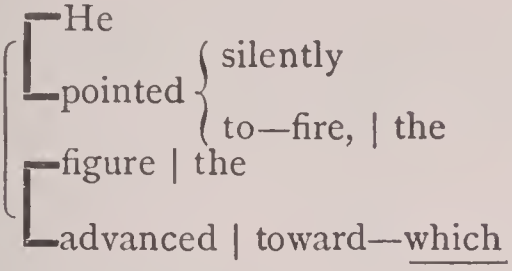
Sentences.

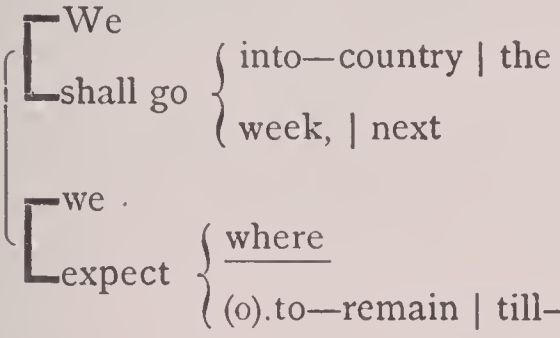
1. I walked, but you rode.
2. The summer has gone, and autumn is here.
3. He pointed silently to the fire, toward which the figure advanced.
4. We shall go into the country next week, where we expect to remain till winter.

Diagrams.

1.


2.


3.


4.


Oral Analysis.

1. (*Sentence No. 1.*)—*I walked, but you rode* is a sentence—compound, declarative—the two members of which are connected by *but*. The leading sentence, *I walked*, is simple, *I* is the simple subject, and *walked* is the simple predicate.

The coördinate sentence, *you rode*, is also simple. *You* is the simple subject, and *rode* is the simple predicate.

2. (*Sentence No. 3.*)—*He pointed silently to the fire, toward which the figure advanced* is a sentence—compound, declarative—the two members of which are connected by *which*.

The leading sentence, *He pointed silently to the fire*, is simple, etc...

The coördinate sentence, *Toward which the figure advanced*, is also simple.

The figure is the complex subject, etc.....

Advanced toward which, is the complex predicate, etc.....

VI.—*Partial-Compound Sentences.*

Sentences.

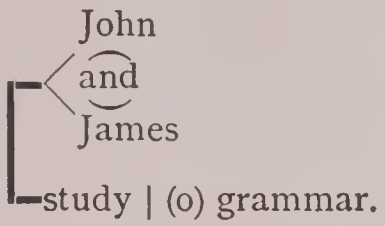
1. John and James study grammar.
2. John studies diligently and recites well.

3. John and James study diligently and recite well.

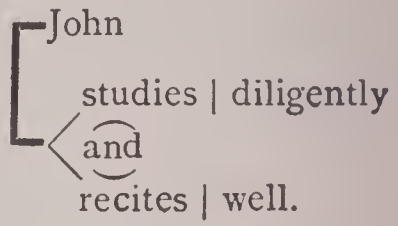
4. The man who can read and write, and the man who has no education, are unequally equipped for the battle of life.

Diagrams.

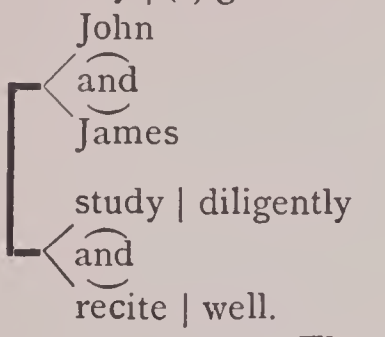
1.



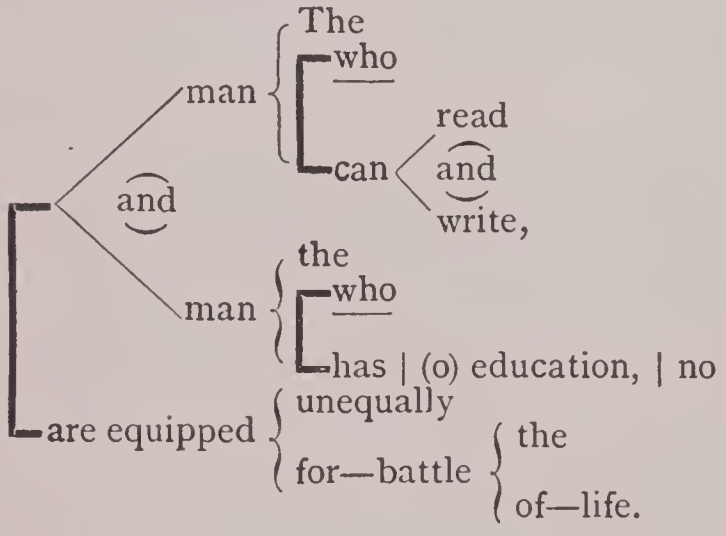
2.



3.



4.



Oral Analysis.

1. (*Sentence No. 1.*)—*John and James study grammar* is a sentence —partial-compound, declarative. *John and James* is the compound

subject, the two members of which are each simple, and are connected by *and*. *Study grammar* is the complex predicate: *study*, the base, is modified by *grammar*—a simple, objective element of the first class.

2. (*Sentence No. 3.*)—*John and James study diligently and recite well* is a sentence--partial-compound, declarative. *John and James* is the compound subject, the two members of which are each simple, and are connected by *and*. *Study diligently and recite well* is the compound predicate, the two members of which are connected by *and*. *Study diligently*, the first member, is complex; *study*, the base, being modified by *diligently*—a simple, adverbial element of the first class: *recite well*, the second member, is also complex; *recite*, the base, being modified by *well*—a simple, adverbial element of the first class.

VII.—*Miscellaneous.*

Sentences.

1. He sailed nearly around the world.
2. The lake is thought to be deep.
3. There is the boy whom we had punished.
4. We saw him brushing with hasty steps the dews away.
5. The deeper the well, the cooler the water.
6. We walked as fast as possible.
7. I am not wiser, though old and gray.

1. He | sailed | around—world. | the | nearly

2. to—be—deep. | (s) lake | The | is thought

3. boy { the / we had | (o) [ ] punished. | (s) whom
is | There

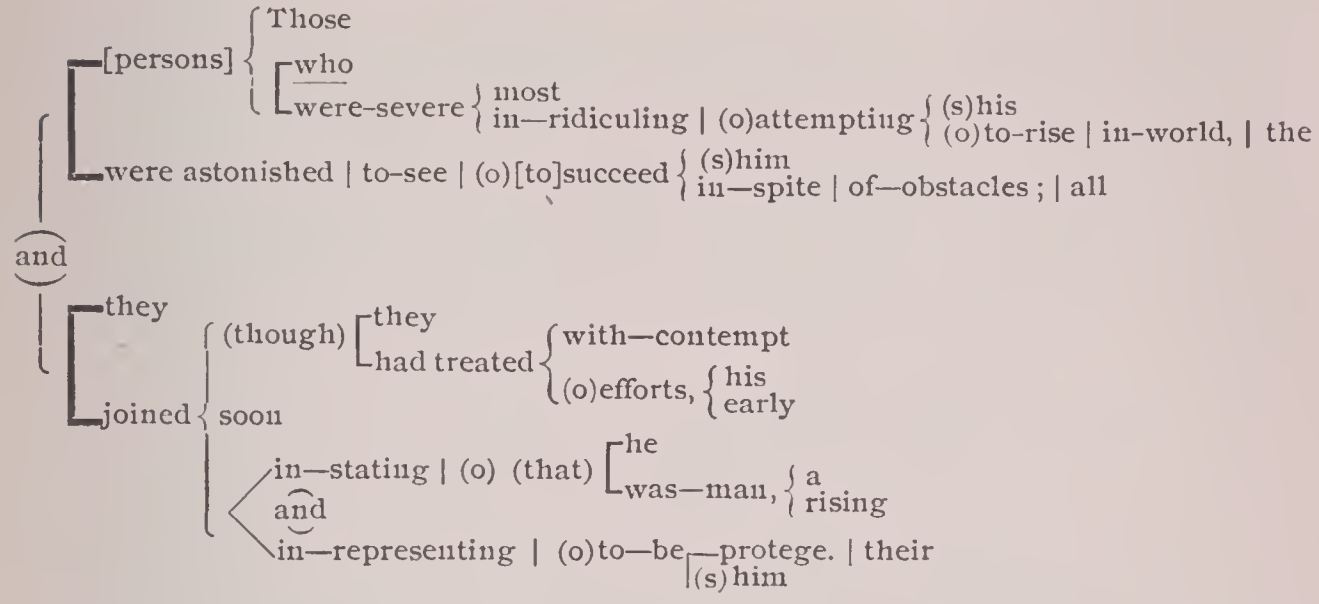
4. We
saw | (o) [ ] brushing { (s) him / with—step | hasty / (o) dews | the / away.

5. water. | the
[is]—cooler | the | well | the
[is]—deeper | The

6. We
walked | fast | as | ([it]) [to—walk]
[was]—possible. / as

7. I
am—wiser / not / (though) [1]
[am]—old / and / gray

8. Those who were most severe in ridiculing his attempting to rise in the world were astonished to see him succeed in spite of all obstacles; and, though they had treated with contempt his early efforts, they soon joined in stating that he was a rising man, and in representing him to be their *protege*.



SENTENCES FOR PARSING AND ANALYSIS.

1. This hour's work will breed proscriptions. 2. The brilliant flowers of the tropics bloom in the windows of the green-house. 3. In every period of life, the acquisition of knowledge is one of the most pleasing employments of the human mind. 4. Proverbial expressions and trite sayings are the flowers of the rhetoric of a vulgar man. 5. Studies serve for delight, for ornament, and for ability. 6. A graceful behavior toward superiors, inferiors, and equals, is a constant source of pleasure. 7. The distinguished historian, Xenophon, skillfully conducted the dangerous retreat. 8. Columbus died in ignorance of the real grandeur of his discovery. 9. The true character acts rightly, in secret or in the sight of men. 10. Our boat at first glides down the narrow channel, through the playful murmuring of the little brook and the winding of its grassy border. 11. Rhetoric employs the whole force of language, in its various forms, to image forth the soul of the orator, the poet, or the elegant prose writer, for the combined purpose of conviction and persuasion.

12. Uneasy lies the head that wears the crown. 13. A great man is one who affects his generation. 14. They attacked the fort with a force that could not be resisted. 15. They wondered at the degeneracy of the people who were living at the time. 16. I had forgotten the circumstances which you mention. 17. The words which have universal power are those which have been keyed and chorded in the great orchestral chamber of the heart. 18. Those who would give the highest training to the mind must furnish it deeds of excellence, tales of heroism. 19. Revolutions which are acted out in a day have often been years or centuries in preparation.

20. I know that thou art valiant. 21. I wish I ne'er had seen your face. 22. Patrick Henry concluded his great speech by saying, "Give me liberty, or give me death." 23. John Bright said of boys, "Teach them arithmetic thoroughly, and they are made men." 24. Have you heard what happened to him yesterday? 25. Do you know who received the appointment? 26. I know where the man lives. 27. Does he see what will happen, if he does not take more pains? 28. He says that he will go to-morrow. 29. "I have not seen him," was, I think, an answer equivalent to saying, "I shall not tell you where he is." 30. He said that if he knew where he could find a good horse for sale, he would go and buy it at once.

31. I thrice presented him a kingly crown, which he did thrice refuse. 32. He pointed silently to the fire, toward which the figure advanced. 33. He gave me a book, which he requested me to read. 34. I am touched at the conduct of some few men, who have lent their authority of their high-sounding names to these acts. 35. Give time to the study of nature, whose laws are important. 36. The boy often tormented his little sister, who loved him so dearly. 37. Civil war is an awful evil, of which, however, history furnishes many examples. 38. The father of epic poetry is Homer, who has given us in the Iliad the story of Troy. 39. America may well boast of her Washington, whose character and fame are the common property of the world. 40.

The poor man had been supported by his son, who now himself was ill. 41. Of course, we shall get nothing from John, who is so miserly that he never gives to the poor.

42. We then went to Cincinnati, where we had other friends. 43. We then went to Cincinnati, where we remained a week. 44. We shall remain till next Monday, when we must return to our home. 46. We shall remain till Monday, which is the day appointed for the meeting we wish to attend.

47. I know what detained the man. 48. I heard what detained the man. 49. I learned in a moment what had been troubling the boy: it was a difficult lesson which his teacher had assigned him. 50. I see what makes the man so faint: it is the bad air in this room. 51. When I was a small child, I knew who built the Ark. 52. I learned at school to-day who conquered Xerxes; and I know who won the Battle of Platæa. 53. You can tell who did this. 54. I know who did it, but I am not acquainted with him.

55. His father being dead, the prince ascended the throne. 56. Having declined the proposal, I determined on a course suited to my own taste. 57. He remained standing during the whole time. 58. He fell at his master's feet, weeping bitterly. 59. Stretching from horizon to horizon, losing itself in the clouds above, it came pouring its green and massive waters onward. 60. Behind the black wall of the forest, tipping its summit with silver, arose the moon. 61. The invading band marched toward the town, bearing a tri-colored flag surmounted by an eagle. 62. Overcoming his fear, he entered the King's apartment, and dispatched him with a single stroke of his dagger. 63. Encouraged by this magnificent invitation, the inhabitants of the globe considered labor as their only friend. 64. Properly speaking, there is no such thing as chance. 65. The young maiden was seen standing on the shore, exposed to the merciless winds, and extending her hands toward heaven.

67. If you will assist me, I will undertake it. 68. I wrote because

it amused me. 69. He left the things exactly where he found them. 70. We must not impute the delay to indifference, for it may be designed to promote our welfare. 71. Were I in his place, I would resign my commission. 72. Had he asked me for assistance, I should have rendered him all the aid in my power. 73. Though their provisions were well-nigh exhausted, yet they would not surrender. 74. If they have persecuted me, they will also persecute you. 75. A man should do right, simply because it is right. 76. Should he return before noon, have him call at the store. 77. When we dip too deep in pleasure, we always stir a sediment that reveals it impure and noxious.

78. But I am met with the objection, "What good will the monument do?" and I ask, in return, What good does anything do?

79. Aristotle says that upon the River Hypanis, in Asia, there exist little insects who live only an hour, and that many generations of them pass away in a day.

80. Then Judah came near unto him and said, "O my lord, let thy servant, I pray thee, speak a word in my lord's ears."

81. There is much that is deciduous in books, but all that gives them title to rank as literature in its highest sense is perennial.—LOWELL.

82. I do not like to say it, but he has sometimes smothered the child-like simplicity of Chaucer under the feather-beds of verbiage.—LOWELL.

83. Energy will do anything that can be done in the world; and no talents, no circumstances, no opportunity will make a man without it.

84. No man forgets his original trade; the rights of nations and of kings sink into questions of grammar, if grammarians discuss them.

85. Christianity was received in Ireland with a burst of popular applause and enthusiasm, and letters and arts sprang up rapidly in its train.

86. The bad fortune of the good turns their faces up to Heaven, but the good fortune of the bad bows their faces down to earth.

87. Children are travelers newly arrived in a strange country; we should make it a principle not to mislead them.

88. That one should be mistaken, and commit errors, is simply that he should be human and act humanly.

89. When the righteous are in authority, the people rejoice; but when the wicked beareth rule, the people mourn.

90. If, when he had good opportunities for education, he had improved them; then, when an excellent situation was offered him, he would have been prepared for it.

91. There are some thinkers about whom we always feel easy, because they never have a thought of sufficient magnitude to be made uncomfortable by its possession.

92. O! it offends me to the soul to hear a robustious fellow tear a passion to tatters—to very rags—to split the ears of the groundlings; who, for the most part, are capable of nothing but inexplicable dumb show and noise.

93. It must be borne in mind that no figures will render a cold or empty composition interesting; and that the figure is only the dress, while the sentiment is the body and the substance.

94. When Stephen of Colonna fell into the hands of his base assailants, and they asked him in derision, "Where is now your fortress?" "Here," was his bold reply, placing his hand upon his heart.

95. It is difficult for the most cool headed imposter long to personate an enthusiast, without in some degree believing what he is so eager to have believed.

96. Self-denial is often attended with blessings that abundantly recompense such losses as the modest seem to suffer in the ordinary occurrences of life.

97. Believing your own thoughts, believing that what is true for you in your private heart is true for all men—that is genius.

98. The preacher is generally thought to have some advantage over the senator and advocate in treating his subjects.

99. He was supposed to be very wealthy, but in forming its opinion on this point the world made the common mistake of noting what he had and neglecting what he owed.

100. Demosthenes is said to have transcribed the history of Thucydides six times.

101. He is said to have been the largest man in the world.

102. The general horror excited by the massacre of St. Bartholomew is thought to have completed the ruin of the Catholic cause.

103. That which is usually has very small importance, unless we remember that that which is produces that which shall be.

104. He said that that that that that lady parsed was not that that that he asked her to parse.

105. His busy and unselfish life was an example for his neighbors to follow, and when he died the memory of it was a precious heritage to his children.

106. The Spartans, notwithstanding their austerity, prayed the gods to grant them the beautiful with the good.

107. A complete and generous education fits a man to perform justly, skillfully, and magnanimously all the offices of peace and war.

108. I honor the man who is ready to sink
Half his present repute for the freedom to think;
And when he has thought, be his cause strong or weak,
Will risk t' other half for the freedom to speak.—LOWELL.

109. I know not how it is with other men,
Whom I but guess, deciphering myself,
For me, once felt is so felt nevermore.—ID.

110. Our buskins on our feet we drew;
With mittened hands, and caps drawn low,
To guard our necks and ears from snow,
We cut the solid whiteness through.—WHITTIER.

111. However full, with something more,
We fain the bag would cram;
We sigh above our crowded nets
For fish that never swam.—ID.

112. Not only around our infancy
Doth heaven with all its splendors lie;
Daily with souls that cringe and plot
We Sinais climb and know it not.—LOWELL.

113. Other creature here,
Beast, bird, insect, or worm, durst enter none.—MILTON.

114. That is the story of old John Burns:
This is the moral the reader learns;
In fighting the battle, the question's whether
You'll show a hat that is white, or a feather.—BRET HARTE.

115. A fellow says: "I own no school or college;
No master lives whom I acknowledge;
And pray, don't entertain the thought
That of the dead I e'er learned aught."
This, if I rightly understand,
Means: "I am a blockhead at first hand."—GOETHE.

116. There are some qualities—some incorporate things,
That have a double life, which thus is made
A type of that twin entity which springs
From matter and light, evinced in solid shade.—E. A. POE.

117. Vastness! and Age! and memories of Eld!
Silence and Desolation! and dim Night!
I feel ye now—I feel ye in your strength—
O spells more sure than e'er Judean king
Taught in the gardens of Gethsemane!
O charms more potent than the rapt Chaldee
Ever drew down from out the quiet stars.—ID.

118. Like as the waves make toward the pebbled shore,
So do our minutes hasten to their end,
Each changing place with that which goes before,
In sequent toil all forwards do contend.
Nativity, once in the main of light,
Crawls to maturity, wherewith being crowned,
Crooked eclipses 'gainst his glory fight,
And Time that gave doth now his gift confound.
Time doth transfix the flourish set on youth,
And delves the parallels on beauty's brow;
Feeds on the raritics of nature's truth,
And nothing stands but for his scythe to mow.—SHAKSPERE.

119. Then to her yron wagon she betakes,
And with her beares the fowle welfavoured witch;
Through mirksome aire her ready way she makes,
Her twy fold teme, of which two blacke as pitch,
And two were browne, yet each to each unlich,
Did softly swim away, ne never stamp,
Unlesse she chaunst theire stubborne mouths to twitch:
Then foaming tarre, their bridles they would champ,
And trampling the fine element would fiercely ramp.—SPENCER.

120. Him the Almighty Power
Hurled headlong flaming from the ethereal sky,
With hideous ruin and combustion, down
To bottomless perdition; there to dwell
In adamantine chains and penal fire,
Who durst defy the Omnipotent to arms.—MILTON.

121. To bow and sue for grace
With suppliant knee, and deify the power
Who, from the terror of this arm, so late
Doubted his empire—that were low indeed.—ID.

122. Him followed his next mate,
Both glorying to have 'scaped the Stygian flood
As gods, and by their own recovered strength.—ID.

123. But wherefore let we then our faithful friends,
The associates and copartners of our loss,
Lie thus astonished on the oblivious pool?—ID.

124. He scarce had ceased, when the superior fiend
Was moving toward the shore; his ponderous shield,
Ethereal temper, massy, large and round,
Behind him cast.—ID.

125. The broad circumference
Hung on his shoulders like the moon, whose orb
Through optic glass the Tuscan artist views
At evening from the top of Fesole,
Or in Valdarno, to descry new lands,
Rivers, or mountains, in her spotty globe.

126. His spear—to equal which the tallest pine
Hewn on Norwegian hills, to be the mast

Of some great ammiral, were but a wand—
He walked with, to support uneasy steps
Over the burning marle.—ID.

127. That honor claimed
Azazel as his right, a cherub tall
Who forthwith from the glittering staff unfurled
The imperial ensign ; which, full high advanced,
Shown like a meteor streaming to the wind,
With gems and golden lustre rich emblazed,
Seraphic arms and trophies, all the while
Sonorous metal blowing martial sounds.—ID.

128. And now his heart
Distends with pride, and hardening in his strength,
Glories ; for never since created man,
Met such embodied force as, named with these,
Could merit more than that small infantry
Warr'd on by cranes.—ID.

129. For thee, who mindful of the unhonor'd dead.
Dost in these lines their artless tale relate,
If, chance, by lonely contemplation led,
Some kindred spirit shall inquire my fate,

Haply some hoary-head swain may say,
"Oft have we seen him at the peep of dawn,
Brushing, with hasty step, the dews away,
To meet the sun upon the upland lawn."—GRAY.

130. I saw the day lean o'er the world's sharp edge,
And peer into night's chasm, dark and damp,
High in his hand he held a blazing lamp,
Then dropped it, and plunged headlong down the ledge.
—ELLA WHEELER.

131. There are some men who, with heads little better than pins, are apparently successful in everything they undertake.—MATTHEWS.

132. A little blindness, a little self-confidence, a little ignorance of his own weaknesses and defects, are imperatively necessary, if one would strive with hope and pluck to win the world's prizes.—ID.

133. There is reason to fear that in the case of not a few persons the

mind is so rounded and polished by education, so well balanced, as not to be energetic in any one faculty.—ID.

134. Now, when the said abbot had ruled the monastery of Scetis seven years with uncommon prudence, resplendent in virtue and in miracles, it befell that one morning he was late for the divine office.—KINGSLEY.

135. "The little fellow forgets," said Arsenius with a smile, "to how much he has confessed already, and how easy it were now to trace him to the old hag's lair."—ID.

136. By desiring what is perfectly good, even when we don't quite know what it is, and cannot do what we would, we are a part of the divine power against evil.—GEORGE ELIOT.

137. Lycurgus, blending theft with the spirit of justice, the hardest slavery with extreme liberty, the most atrocious sentiments with the greatest moderation, gave stability to his city.—MONTESQUIEU.

138. Thus each of the good friars, in his turn, enjoys the luxury of a consecrated bed, attended with the slight drawback of being forced to get up long before daybreak and make room for another lodger.—HAWTHORN.

139. The contest between the morality which appeals to an external standard, and that which is grounded on internal conviction, is the contest of progressive against stationary morality, of reason and argument against the deification of mere opinion and habit.—J. S. MILL.

140. Amid the struggle for existence which has always been going on among living beings, variations of bodily conformation and structure, if in any degree profitable to an individual of any species, will tend to the preservation of that individual; and will generally be inherited by its offspring.—DARWIN.

141. To rescue this circle of studies from inadequate conceptions, and to lay the ground for a true idea of them, I have proposed to term them Homerology.—GLADSTONE.

142. And at the threshold, postponing for the moment our notice

of the controversies involved in what is termed the Homeric question, let us see how far we can acquire an idea of the poet himself, and the conditions under which he lived.—ID.

143. It was therefore to be expected that, true to the nature of hot-blooded, daring, and self-relying youth, they would advise the cutting of the Gordian knot which the silver-headed sages of the revolution had vainly tried to disentangle.—VON HOLST.

144. It was a coincidence of the utmost importance that the ranks of the Revolutionary patriots had, by this time, become so thinned that the representatives of a new generation could grasp the helm without having to encounter the opposition of long acknowledged authority.—ID.

145. Suddenly, in the air before them, not farther up than a low hill-top, flared a lambent flame; as they looked at it, the apparition contracted into a focus of dazzling lustre.—WALLACE.

146. At midnight the entrances were thrown open, and the rabble, surging in, occupied the quarters assigned to them, from which nothing less than an earthquake or an army with spears could have dislodged them.—ID.

147. He was not much acquainted with valves of any sort, but he knew that *valvæ* were folding doors, and through this crevice came a sudden light, startling him with his first vivid notion of finely adjusted mechanism in the human frame.—GEORGE ELIOT.

148. Be it known, then, that the afore-mentioned gentleman, in his leisure moments, which composed the greater part of the year, gave himself up with so much ardor to the perusal of books of chivalry, that he almost wholly neglected the exercise of the chase, and even the regulation of his domestic affairs; indeed, so extravagant was his zeal in this pursuit that he sold many acres of arable land to purchase books of Knight-errantry.—CERVANTES.

149. There are some persons who imagine that capital is money, and this is precisely the reason why they deny its productiveness; for, as John Ruskin and others say, Dollars are not endowed with the power of reproducing themselves.—BASTIAT.

150. William Penn was a true Lycurgus; and although the former had peace for his object, and the latter war, they resemble each other in the singular path along which they have led their people, in their influence over free men, in their prejudices which they have overcome, the passions they have subdued.—MONTESQUIEU.

151. The last blue headland of Sardinia was fading on the north-west horizon, and a steady breeze bore before it innumerable ships, the wrecks of Heraclian's armament, plunging and tossing impatiently in their desperate homeward race toward the coast of Africa.—KINGSLEY.

152. The greatest obstacle to being heroic is the doubt whether one may not be going to prove one's self a fool; the truest heroism is, to resist the doubt; and the profoundest wisdom to know when it ought to be resisted, and when to be obeyed.—HAWTHORN.

HELPS AND AIDS IN DRAWING.

Blank Drawing Book. Contains 12 pp. of American Drawing Paper, 6½x8½ inches; a sheet of tissue paper between every two sheets of drawing paper. The uses to which the book may be put are many. With some of the drawing designs we offer to be used for designs, and this book to contain the reproduced design, excellent work may be done and at a very small expense. Well bound. Neat manila cover. Prepaid, **8c.**, or **72c.** per doz. By express, **$4.50** per 100.

Children's Drawing Teacher. Three Assortments. New Designs.

Each box contains 20 leather paper stencils of Animals, Children at Play, Houses, Fruits, Flowers, etc. 4¼x6 inches, so perforated that a child can take a pencil and get an outline of each picture on paper, after which the sketch or outline may be filled out, thus affording amusement and profitable employment. An entire class may be kept busy for hours with these, thus relieving the teacher greatly. There are now three collections, 1, 2, 3, all new designs. Price, **25c.** per box or the three for **65c.** net.

Drawing Made Easy Series of Cards. There are four sets in the series.

Set No. 1 consists of fifty exercises on cards for reproduction by the pupils, accompanied by a Manual or Guide for the teacher. The designs are made up entirely of straight lines or straight and curved lines. They are objects that the pupil is familiar with, instead of merely a combination of lines. Price of Cards and Manual....**25c.**

Set No. 2 consists of forty-seven designs all of such objects as children will take delight in reproducing. Among the set are Dog's Heads (several different ones), a Pig, a Butterfly, a Rabbit, a Stump, a Calf, a Bridge, Flowers, an Old Fence, Birds and Nest, and many others of an equally pleasant variety. Price of Cards and Manual.....**25c.**

Set No. 3 contains some of the best designs in the entire series. These are largely of Animals, Fruit, Flowers, Birds, Houses. There are 49 designs and a Manual of Directions. Price, per set.....**25c.**

Set No. 4 has but twenty-eight designs, they being larger, and are of landscapes, in which shading is introduced. Children in Groups, Animals in various positions, or of other interesting subjects, and such as are easy to draw. Cards and Manual to teachers.....**25c.**

The four sets.....**80c.**

Hull's Drawing Book. Founded and built up on nature and experience. The only self-instructing system extant.

Instruction is given as a rule with each design. Note the following points: Complete Geometric Definitions. All the plane figures, how to draw them and cut from paper. Hundreds of designs or pictures in free hand, everyone described. All the solid forms and how to cut, fold, and paste paper to make them.

It is the Book for Teachers who have beginners in reading and wish to make the picture with the word; who have from fifty to one hundred pupils and are puzzled to keep the little ones busy; who give language lessons; who use the blackboard; who desire to learn to illustrate all the subjects they teach; for all teachers of drawing; for kindergartners. Price of Drawing Book.....**35c.**

75 Very Easy Drawing Exercises. The title indicates the value of these helps. There are 75 designs of such articles as children delight in reproducing. Each is in a square which is marked by cross lines to assist in redrawing. Price, only **10c.** per set.

SCHOOL SINGING BOOKS.

Hanson's Merry Songs. For Vocal Classes, Institutes, Day Schools, etc. By S. C. HANSON.

Merry Songs is a new book, full of fresh and sparkling music. The attention of teachers is called to the following claims:

1. The first eighteen pages constitute a Guide to the Art of Reading and Singing Written music. The teacher will be amazed at the novelty and simplicity of the first few lessons.

2. The variety of the music is great, and something can be found for almost every occasion. Children's Easy Songs and Glees, Solos, Duets, Songs and Glees, Sacred Songs, Choruses, Plantation Melodies, New Patriotic Songs and Grand National Airs.

3. The book contains 118 pages, and has about as much music in it as the ordinary 75c. class and convention book. Two parts are written on each staff.

4. MERRY SONGS was composed by a day school teacher, a man who knows the wants of his fellow sufferers. That he has hit the mark is shown by the large sales his books have had: MERRY MELODIES, out four years, 80,000 copies sold, MERRY SONGS, two years, 20,000. Price, **35c.** per copy. **$3.60** per dozen. Sample copy **30c.** to teachers.

The Fountain Song Book Series. A new arrangement of this popular collection of singable pieces for Grammar and High School Grades and Country Schools is now ready.

No 1. Revised, contains 80 pages of excellent music and words, all original. They are good in character and sentiment. Price, **15c.** **$1.50** per dozen.

No. 2. Revised, contains 80 pages of the best music. Some original pieces, but many old favorites that will always be new. Price, **15c.** **$1.50** per dozen.

No. 3. Is a collection of old stand bys, by J. O. LESLIE, a leading Illinois teacher and Institute conductor. It contains only the best that is to be found anywhere. Price, **15c.** **$1.50** per dozen. The three for **36c.** There are no duplicate pieces.

Dear Land So Fair. A New, Beautiful, Patriotic Song and Chorus, together with other Patriotic Songs, should be sung in every school and home in the land. Will rival any of the old stand-bys. Price only **15c.** each.

Sunbeams of Song. Thirty-two pages of original songs, words only, adapted to popular airs, the names of which are given. The words were written by a teacher of experience and are for school use only. Pupils will delight in singing them, and as no knowledge of music is required, they will be used in every school. Price, **7c.** or **60c.** per dozen.

Songs of School Life. Twenty-eight original songs (words only), suited to school use and adapted to familiar tunes.

Just what scores of teachers and thousands of pupils will welcome. Original songs, the words within the pupil's understanding; the tunes are those which all teachers and most pupils are familiar with, such as "Marching Through Georgia," "Dixie," "What Can the Matter Be," "Yankee Doodle," etc.

They will add life to any school. They have been used and found just the thing to wake up a school on a dull day. They are within the reach of all. Price, postpaid, **7c.** per copy. Per dozen, **60c.**

Congdon's Chromatic Pitch Instrument. Convenient, simple, inexpensive; sounds "doh" for ten keys. Is used in the schools of Boston. Chicago. St Paul, Minneapolis and many other cities. Price, **50c.**

A. FLANAGAN, CHICAGO.

ENTERTAINMENT BOOKS.

Of all entertainments lately used in School and Church Exhibitions, nothing has given as much satisfaction as Drills and Marches. They are not difficult to prepare. All can take part in them and the audience is always pleased. I now offer a new set of these entertainments viz:

Thompson's Drills and Marches.

CONTAINS:

Doll Waltz.
Dude Drill.
Wand Exercise
Handkerchief Flirtation Drill.
Shaking Quaker Drill.
Thanksgiving March and Exercises.
Fairy Hoop Drill.
Christmas Exercise and Drill.
May Queen March.
Imitation Dumb Bell Exercises.

Full directions and also an abundance of illustrations, showing many different positions on the stage, for each drill. Price.....**25c.**

The School House Flag. A National patriotic exercise for flag raisings, festivals, and all patriotic entertainments. Contains 32 pages of songs, recitations, and exercises. Price.....**15c.**

Columbia, or America's Cantata. An historical entertainment for school. Dialogues, songs, and acting. For advanced pupils or young folks. Price.....**25c.**

The Headlight. Dialogues, Recitations, and exercises for Sunday School and Mission Entertainments. For protestant churches, but undenominational. A very large collection carefully selected and adapted to all ages, old and young. Price.....**25c.**

"Peabody's Cantata of Ireland." It is a work designed exclusively for the use of Catholic schools as a book for study and singing, and also especially for exhibition purposes, including a grand and most complete entertainment program. It forms a complete history of Ireland in outline arranged in Dialogue, Recitations and Songs. It is very artistic and patriotic, and sure to please all. Price.....**25c.**

Barnett's Flag Drill. For Exhibitions, Social Entertainments, and all Patriotic Occasions

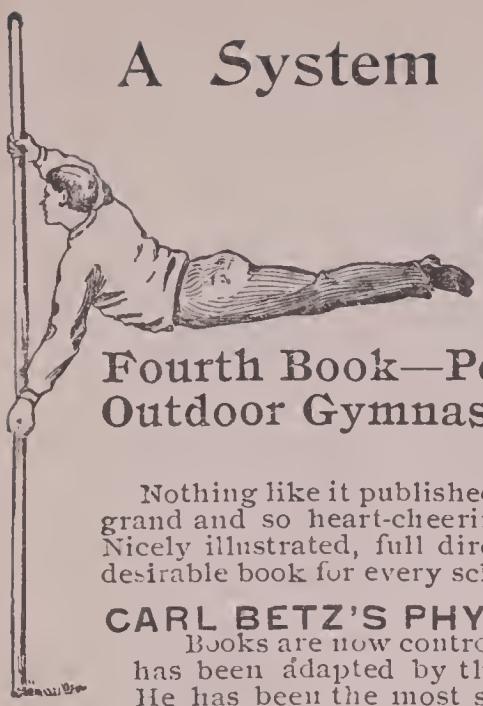
A novel, attractive and entertaining exercise, suitable for the entire school. Admits of charming display of costumes and drapery. Easy to learn. Full directions given. Seemingly difficult parts illustrated. So arranged that parts may be omitted, thus making it suitable for long or short entertainments. Price.....**25c.**

Brown's Popular Readings. To become the most popular series yet issued, Each volume will contain 224 pages. Volume 1. ready, contains new readings from Will Carlton, Bob. J. Burdette, Eligah Kellogg and others. Good paper, clear print, fresh and suitable matter. Other numbers will follow, two or more a year. Price, **25c.** each.

Reception Day. A series of dialogues, recitations, etc. 6 Nos. ready. These contain a collection of fresh, original dialogues, recitations, class exercises and primary pieces. No scenery or stage-fittings are required It is the best collection we have ever seen for school use—not for public readers. Price, each **30c.** Two or more, **25c.** each.

A. FLANAGAN, CHICAGO.

A System of Physical Culture



..... BY .....

CARL BETZ

Director and Supervisor of Physical Culture, Kansas City, Mo.

Fourth Book—Popular Gymnastics or Outdoor Gymnastics of the Play Ground

For Boys and Girls, now ready.

Nothing like it published before in this country. These sports are so grand and so heart-cheering that boys of all ages will welcome them. Nicely illustrated, full directions, all up to the times make it a very desirable book for every school to have. Price, 65c.

CARL BETZ'S PHYSICAL CULTURE

Books are now controlled by me. The system is the German but has been adapted by the author **to** the needs of American Schools. He has been the most successful teacher of Physical Culture in this Country. His methods are used the world over. Book three has been recently adopted in London, England

FREE GYMNASTICS FOR GRADED SCHOOLS

Now in 15th Thousand. The exercises are such as form a part of the great German system the result of a century's work of some the best pedagogues, patriots and statesmen. Price 60c. **Free Gymnastics for Ungraded Schools** is an abridged edition of the above. Price 35c.

LIGHT GYMNASTICS

or the **Third Book** contains exercises with Poles, Dumb Bells, Rings, and Wands and Indian Clubs. It gives the teacher all the essentials of exercises with movable appliances, and leads him on until he is able to free himself from the text of the book. Price 75c.

Full Descriptions, Contents, etc. on request.

Less than 200,000 Persons are using our Song Books.

More than this number **should** be using them. **Merry Songs** is always a favorite. Thousands have been sold at 35c; Our net price now is 25c.

Fountain Song Book No. 3 contains 72 pages of the best Miscellaneous, Sacred and Patriotic songs to be found anywhere. It is practical and cheap, 72 large pages; 15c, $1.50 per Doz. $10.00 per 100. In Board binding, 20c., $2.00 per Doz. $15.00 per 100.

MY BUSINESS

is to supply teachers everywhere with the best books and apparatus in their line for the least money, and with the greatest promptness than can be given. I claim to be a leader in this line. I carry all works on Education. Send for my Catalogues. Free

A. FLANAGAN, Chicago.

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS
0 003 244 259 6